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THE TEACHER AS A LEADER OF OTHER ADULTS

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro ED.D. 1982

THE TEACHER AS A LEADER OF OTHER ADULTS

by

Ruth Ann Palmer

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fullfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

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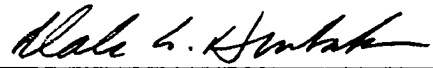

Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation Adviser _____

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March 29, 1982
Date of Acceptance by Committee

March 24, 1982
Date of Final Oral Examination

PALMER, RUTH ANN. The Teacher as a Leader of Other Adults. (1982)
Directed by: Dr. Dale Brubaker. Pp. 132.

The purposes of this study were to determine the nature of teacher leadership in the elementary school and to delineate characteristics which differentiate teacher leaders from nonleader teachers.

The subjects were 42 elementary teachers from schools in Concord, Kannapolis, and rural Cabarrus County, North Carolina. Twenty-one teacher leaders were identified by principals within the 11 participating schools, with an equal number being randomly chosen from those schools as a control group. A 50-item questionnaire was developed to gather information regarding teachers' personal characteristics, professional characteristics, philosophy, nonteaching activities, and relationships with other adults. Analysis of data involved chi square and t-tests of statistical significance, as well as analysis by percentage and mode.

Hypothesis 1 stated there would be a significant difference between teachers selected as leaders and those randomly selected with regard to personal characteristics, professional characteristics, educational philosophy, and activities outside the classroom. The hypothesis was confirmed. It was found that teacher leaders tended to be older than nonleaders, had more teaching experience, were more likely to find reward in children's academic growth, were more likely to see their professional role extending beyond the

classroom, were more likely to have led workshops for adults, were more active in professional organizations, and preferred to chair committees rather than just serve on them. Hypothesis 2 stated that principals would be able to characterize the identified teacher's leadership as educational, social, or political. This was also confirmed, with all teacher leaders characterized as educational leaders, and 50 percent having at least one other descriptor attributed to them.

Hypothesis 3 stated that the teacher leader would interact in significantly different ways than the nonleader with administrators, other teachers, parents, volunteers, student teacher, and aides. This hypothesis was confirmed for all adult groups except aides and volunteers.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express gratitude to the many people who have contributed to making possible the entire doctoral program and present study. As adviser and chairman of the dissertation committee, Dr. Dale L. Brubaker has provided support, expertise, and encouragement that have been invaluable.

Thanks are also extended to other members of the committee, Dr. Joseph E. Bryson, Dr. Donald W. Russell, and Dr. J. Nancy White, who were most willing to offer suggestions and guidance. Additionally, the writer appreciates the assistance of Dr. Edward L. Palmer, who provided statistical expertise contributing to the design and data analysis of the study. For her typing skill and personal support, the writer wishes to thank Patty Herring.

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Acknowledgment of the strong foundations built by loving parents must be given. Though each has passed away since the writer's inception into the doctoral program, their support of growth and excellence has served as a constant guide.

For his steadfast love, support, and encouragement, the writer extends heartfelt gratitude to her husband, Ed. Deep appreciation is also extended to their children, Eddie and Jennifer, for sharing this goal.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The teacher role affords many opportunities for leadership of other adults. Though teachers are characteristically considered educational leaders of students, they are less likely to be thought of as leaders of adults within school settings. "Traditionally, the teacher is viewed as the primary instructional or curriculum leader of the students in the classroom" (Brownlee, 1979, p. 119).

Why do most teachers perceive their professional influence as limited to students? Undergraduate training promotes this image, and most graduate courses reinforce it. Leadership curriculum is reserved for upperclass or graduate students in educational administration. "The curriculum of continuing education for teachers has focused upon theories of curriculum development; new materials and technology; and techniques for . . . effective classroom management" (Reilly & Dembo, 1975, p. 126). Many school administrators do little to initiate sharing governance or promoting teacher leadership. Leonard Solo, principal of the Cambridge Alternative Public School in Sudbury, Massachusetts, advocates shared power. However, he observed:

> The organizational structure . . . in most schools or school systems is a pyramid with the teachers at the bottom . . . . If we really believe that schools are for children, that structure should be an inverted pyramid instead. The teachers, as the main decision makers, should be at the top, with all the rest of the personnel supporting them. (Solo, 1979, p. 71)

The expertise of teachers holds positive potential for administrators, other teachers, parents, aides, volunteers, and student teachers (Downey, 1970). Furthermore, teachers have the opportunity for leadership of other adults within and beyond the confines of their own schools. Which educators exert this influence, in what manner, and with what motive? The purposes of this study are

1. To determine the nature of teacher leadership in the elementary school, and
2. To delineate characteristics which differentiate teacher leaders from nonteacher leaders.

Definition of Terms

Essential to the study is an understanding of the term "leadership." An administrative interpretation formulated by Haimann, Scott, and Connor (1978) is "a process by which people are directed, guided, and influenced in choosing and achieving goals . . . To motivate people to the highest job performance possible" (p. 410). The motive is intentional and goal directed. Yukl (1981), on the other hand, perceived the leader as "a person who influences group members in any manner" (p. 4). The influence exerted may be intentional or unintentional. Combining the essence of both the general and context specific definitions, Brubaker (1976) interpreted leadership as "the process by which a person influences the actions of others to behave in what he considers to be a desirable direction. . . an inevitable process whenever two or more people get together" (p. 3). For purposes of this study, a working definition of leadership combines the perspectives of both Yukl and Brubaker.

Teacher leadership is a term used to describe one who influences other group members, getting them to do what he thinks they should do.

Educational leadership refers to the professional influence of a teacher on other adults. This educator models exceptional expertise and often is sought out by peers for advice regarding materials, methodology, insights. Leadership may be intentional but more often is unintentional.

Social leadership conceptualizes the teacher as the hub of networking focused on interpersonal relationships. The basis of influence is related to the leader's personality and ties of friendship. Interactions only incidentally involve educational concerns. Leadership may be intentional or unintentional.

Political leadership refers to the influence of a teacher on other adults as related to service in professional organizations. It is an intentional kind of leadership, sometimes focusing on teacher rights or power.

Sources of Power

A companion consideration with regard to leadership is the authority base upon which it rests. Leadership cannot be exerted without a perception of the leader's power by the follower. Haimann et al. (1978) described this power as "a form of domination giving its possessor the ability to direct the actions of others toward predetermined goals" (p. 374). Yukl (1981) viewed it as

> . . . an agent's potential capacity to influence a target person . . . (either) attitudes and/or behavior . . . a dynamic variable that depends on the relationship between agent and target person. (p. 18)

Leaders will be followed because they are perceived to possess one or more of these sources of power.

Position Power

Authority given by virtue of the position one holds in an organization is considered position power. The types of control associated with position power include the following:

1. Reward power: the follower's perceptions of the rewards a leader can offer (economic reward, academic reward, protection, influence) (French & Raven, 1960).
2. Coercive power: belief of followers that punishment could result from noncompliance with the leader's directives or wishes (French & Raven, 1960).
3. Legitimate power: belief that the leader has a legitimate right to give directives and that the follower is obligated to comply (French & Raven, 1960).
4. Credibility as a knowledgable, trustworthy person (Yukl, 1981).

A college degree and state teacher certification assure the teacher leader of proper credentials. The teacher's experience, positive reputation, and confidence contribute heavily to his functional power.

Personal Power

The most effective, yet capricious, type of power is that which is based on the personal commitment of the follower. It is founded on respect and positive perception, perhaps developing into personal identification and modeling behavior by the follower. Types of personal power include the following:

1. Referent power: identification with the leader and what he stands for; admiration for and modeling of the leader (French & Raven, 1960).
2. Succorance: "power of an informal nature," giving emotional support, conveying humanistic concern (Brubaker, 1976, p. 31).
3. Charisma: "an intangible source of power based . . . on non-verbal characteristics of a person. . . (appealing) to one's emotions" (Brubaker, 1976, p. 31).

Teachers have full access to personal power. Their teaching and leadership role with other adults will be greatly enhanced by the respect and commitment of administrators, other teachers, parents, aides, volunteers, and student teachers. The most effective leadership draws from each of these three sources of power. If a person has only position power to rely on, he will quickly become a figurehead, commanding rather than leading. Functional power is necessary if a leader is to be trusted and respected. Nothing can replace a follower's confidence in the leader's expertise. Personal power, while highly desirable, is a day-to-day phenomenon that may be earned but rapidly withdrawn (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

Avenues of Influence

When there is a perceived power base, the leader can draw upon that influence to induce people to act in ways they otherwise might not. Yukl (1981) described numerous forms of influence at the leader's disposal.

1. Legitimate request: when the follower complies with the request of the leader because he recognizes the right of the leader to make the request.

2. Instrumental compliance: when the follower complies because of the leader's implicit or explicit promise to ensure some desired tangible outcome.

3. Coercion: compliance by the follower due to implicit or explicit threat by the leader.

4. Rational persuasion: compliance of the follower because he is convinced that the suggested behavior is the best way to satisfy his own needs or meet his objectives.

5. Rational faith: the follower acts out of faith in the expertise and credibility of the leader.

6. Inspirational appeal: when the follower believes there is an essential link between the requested behavior and a value that warrants the behavior.

7. Indoctrination: inducing internalization of values and beliefs so as to exert influence over a group.

8. Information distortion: providing selective or false information for the purpose of influencing others.

9. Situational engineering: controlling key aspects of a setting so as to limit the responses of participants within the situation.

10. Personal identification: modeling the attitudes or behavior of a revered leader.

11. Decision identification: through participation in the decision-making process, the follower experiences increased commitment to group goals since he was a part of the goal formulation. (pp. 11-17)

The teacher leader can utilize any of these avenues of influence, depending on the nature of his relationship with the follower. Forms of leadership interaction typically reserved for the superior-follower relationship--such as the teacher would have with aides, volunteers, student teachers, and parents--include legitimate request, instrumental compliance, decision identification, situational engineering, and coercion. An aide considers the teacher's request for her to hear a child read a legitimate request consistent with the school's goals and the teacher's authority. A student teacher will limit disciplinary procedures to those which fall within the recommendations of the supervising teacher, a form of situational engineering used by the teacher leader. A parent may enforce an earlier bedtime for his child because the teacher has requested it. When a parent responds because of a desire to influence the teacher, the parent's behavior is a form of instrumental compliance. An aide's input regarding a schedule change will probably enlist support of the change during the adjustment period--a result of decision identification.

Avenues of influence which are available to teachers with peers, superiors, and all other adults within the setting include rational persuasion, rational faith, inspirational appeal, information distortion, and personal identification. A teacher who convinces fellow teachers that Excell Publishing Company carries the most complete line of mathematics materials demonstrates a form of influence known as rational persuasion. If fellow teachers request the materials without critical appraisal, trusting the teacher leader's

opinion regarding instructional appropriateness, they would be acting on rational faith. Should a fellow teacher routinely lend personal support to the teacher leader's viewpoints, as a result of like values, that behavior could be attributed to inspirational appeal. Personal identification with the leader, mirroring behavior and attitudes, describes the most compelling avenue of influence.

The teacher leader, intentionally or unintentionally, exerts power (positional, functional, or personal) on other adults in the school setting. As a result of that power base, influence in many forms can be exerted on peers, administrators, aides, volunteers, parents, and student teachers.

Deterrents to Teacher Leadership

The teacher as a leader of other adults is a relatively unexplored topic, as evidenced by (1) the void of research and writing in educational literature, (2) the absence of leadership emphasis in college and university courses for teachers, and (3) the lack of awareness of this potential evidenced by public school teachers. Why have teachers not been encouraged to take a more active role in leadership of other adults? Given the absence of literature on the subject, one can only hypothesize.

1. Lack of awareness. Most teachers have not conceived of nor been instructed in leadership theory or techniques.
2. Lack of time. Many teachers who would like to have influence over the thinking and behavior of other adults in the school find the demands of classroom teaching continuous and all consuming.

3. Lack of congruence with bureaucratic structure. Either teachers or administrators may assume that teacher leadership would compete with line-staff relationships.
4. Lack of administrative recognition of teacher potential. Administrative training does not emphasize shared governance (values or techniques). Given the disporportionate ratio of female educators, both administrators and teachers, alike, have failed to realize teacher leadership potential.

Though there is no empirical evidence citing reasons for the absence of teacher leadership of other adults, patterns of school governance reveal minimal inclusion of it within the power structure.

Encouragement of Teacher Leadership

How might teachers be prompted to assume teacher leadership roles in the schools? The position power they have with peers and within school governance is delegated power, given by administrators. The leadership styles of the principal and superintendent will largely determine the range of influence a teacher leader can have in the school. Of three basic leadership styles (autocratic, democratic, and laissez faire), it is the democratic leader who involves followers in decisions and implementation of them, who maximizes participation, and who stresses human relationships (Haimann et al., 1978, p. 414). Hegarty (1981) described the employee-centered boss as the "Development Leader." "He recognizes potential and develops

it. He trains and develops subordinates to the point where they need him less and less . . . . (The real goal) is not to make decisions. It's to make decision makers." Avenues of encouragement for teachers with leadership potential include the following:

1. Administrators who encourage independence and growth of staff members.
2. Administrators who give opportunity for shared governance and decision making (committee work, appointed or elected posts, access to information).
3. Administrators who provide excellent administrative models.
4. Teachers who demonstrate initiative, drive, vision.
5. University coursework or workshops which provide leadership theory and training.
6. Teaching schedules with time built in for communication with other adults.

While teachers may have neither the potential nor the desire to develop leadership skills, much talent will never reach fruition without administrative awareness and encouragement. Without opportunity for self-actualization, others will become rutted on a lower level of Maslow's hierarchy of human needs, seeking legalistic benefits in the absence of the potential for achievement of more satisfying growth (Weingast, 1980).

Who are the teachers with leadership capability? Will identification of characteristics which differentiate teacher leaders from nonleaders help to locate and nurture leadership of the future?

The purpose of an investigation into the phenomenon of teacher leadership was to explore the existence of such characteristics, be they personal, professional, or philosophical. Should a profile of teacher-leader traits be identified, it would hold potential value for institutions of higher education and for school administrators who were dedicated to maximum development of educator potential. The nurturing of these individuals permits a blossoming of talent, which can ripen and bear fruit in the vineyards of the public schools.

Assumptions and Hypotheses

Assumptions

In a study designed to answer questions concerning the nature of teacher leadership of other adults, it is imperative to identify assumptions upon which the study is based. The following assumptions are central to the researcher's hypotheses:

1. Principals can identify teacher leaders within their schools. Brownlee's (1979) study established that the "teachers and the principals agreed on the identified teacher leaders ($r = .73$; $p < .05$)" (p. 120).
2. Teachers are not necessarily expected to lead other adults.

   > Traditionally, the teacher is viewed as the primary institutional or curriculum leader of students in the classroom . . . the person who plans the learning environment for the students . . . the one who influences the learning behavior of the student in the classroom. (Miel, 1973, p. 109)

3. Teachers have many pressures, but their primary objective is to meet student needs. In assessing the costs of shared

decision making, Duke, Showers, and Imber (1980) found teacher response to be basically positive, except for the cost of time. One teacher expressed her reservation concerning shared governance this way:

> As a teacher I find myself very involved with my students, my class, and it is very hard to find time during school to meet. I don't think it's fair to the kids to take time away from them. (p. 101)

Or as Young (1979) stated, "By tradition, by training, and by the requirements of daily work, teachers are oriented toward their own classrooms" (p. 115).

4. School schedules and purposes promote compartmentalized isolation of teachers, deterring leadership of other adults.

> A teacher's classroom orientation often promoted separation and independence from other staff members rather than interdependence . . . . Logically, the teacher in a self-contained classroom would have fewer opportunities or incentives to interact with colleagues than the teacher who is part of a team teaching arrangement. (Young, 1979, pp. 120-121)

Schmuck and Miles (1971) observed, "the isolated, individuated character of the teacher's role . . . encourages an 'acollaborative' stance" (p. 17). Alfonso (1977) noted:

> Schools are not generally places in which teachers share their ideas, their frustrations, their successes. They live . . . in a private world. There is also a surprising air of competition among teachers in many school systems. (p. 597)

5. The predominance of women in teaching promotes an oversight in leadership potential (both by teachers and administration). McCarthy and Webb (1977) reported:

> Statistics reveal that the percentage of women occupying line administrative positions is actually decreasing . . . . Today in public schools, a mere two percent of the secondary and 18 percent of the elementary principals are women. Furthermore, in the most visible leadership position, the superintendency, women are practically non-existent, holding only .1 percent of these jobs. (p. 49)

Ortiz and Covel (1978) analyzed the barriers to female ascent into administrative positions in education on a parity with men, concluding that the structural characteristics of the school organization were a prime deterrent. They found that the dichotomized school structure tends to perpetuate the predominance of women as teachers and men as administrators.

6. The nature of the teacher leader's influence will be in any or all of the following areas: educational leadership, social leadership, and political leadership. This assertion is based on observation and experience of the researcher.

Hypotheses

In an effort to better understand the phenomenon of teacher leadership of other adults, it is hypothesized that:

1. In comparing questionnaire responses by teacher leaders and a randomly selected equal number of teachers not so identified, significant differences between characteristics of the two groups will be revealed by (1) personal characteristics, (2) professional characteristics, (3) educational philosophy, and (4) activities outside the classroom.

2. Principals, in identifying teacher leaders, will be able to characterize the influence of a teacher as (1) educational leadership, (2) social leadership, and (3) political leadership.
3. The teacher leader will interact in significantly different ways than the nonleader with the following adults: (1) administrators, (2) other teachers, (3) parents, (4) volunteers, (5) student teachers, and (6) aides.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Until recently, research studies viewed the teacher's leadership capability as limited to students (Brownlee, 1979; Drake, 1977; Hunkins, 1972). Brownlee observed:

> In the literature on educational leadership, little attention is given to the teacher as an educational leader in the school other than in the classroom . . . . Overlooked in leadership studies are teachers who have shown the capacity to influence the leadership attempts of not only the school administrator, but also the supervisor, consultant, parents, and community. (p. 119)

While many educators have written favorably regarding the concept of shared governance and decision making, very few studies have been conducted testing the value of teacher leadership within the schools. Yet, many educators advocate an expansion of the teacher's influence beyond the classroom. Hunkins (1972) explained:

> As presently conceived, the teacher's prime role is teaching . . . . Yet the teacher can assume new roles: motivator, mediator, manager, experimenter . . . evaluator, researcher, coordinator, supervisor. (p. 504)

In an appeal to provide new leadership within the schools, Hunkins (1972) sought an increased professionalism for teachers by creating new roles for them. "An educator returning from the grave would easily recognize the current school organization," he stated (p. 506). While he advocated a reorganization of the schools as well as new identities for teachers, the focus of this literature review was confined to a reconception of a teacher's influence within the

school setting.. Drake believed that shift in perception is now occurring:

> Historically, the teacher's role was too often viewed as one of disseminating information to the passive student, a role that is undergoing dynamic revision. A shift in power is challenging the initiative of the perceptive teacher. Emerging is a new kind of teacher . . . who, views his professional role as being co-equal with management. Today the teacher is demanding appropriate recognition of his increased competence to lead. (p. 291)

The nemises of limited time and lack of leadership training plague many teachers who recognize the opportunity for an expanded role within the school. Advocates of teacher leadership support greater autonomy for the classroom teacher, with paraprofessional or volunteer help so that instead of spending "40 percent of the working day engaged in secretarial and custodial tasks," there is the opportunity to function in a supervisory or advisory capacity (Drake, 1977, p. 291).

The opportunity for pre- or in-service training in leadership is most helpful to the teacher with leadership potential (Drake, 1977; Norman & Atlas, 1978). Many teachers will have neither the interest in nor the capability for leadership. But for those who do, Drake (1977) asserted, "Improved in-service education is essential to develop latent talent" (p. 292). Norman and Atlas (1978) saw the initial task to be one of developing a personal theory of leadership. "Unless individuals try to clarify a workable theory of leadership for themselves, they may be operating in terms of unconscious contradictory beliefs that decrease effectiveness" (p. 55). After developing a theoretical base, the teacher leader is ready to

learn techniques and methodology. "The difference between the professionally adept and the less expert lies in the indispensable development of skills" (Drake, 1977, p. 291). Planning, decision making, and communication skills represent essential bodies of knowledge in which the would-be-leader should become involved both theoretically and functionally. Pre-service, in-service, or graduate training are the viable avenues of leadership training. Yet, continuing education has traditionally focused on "theories of curriculum development, new materials and technology, and techniques for implementing prescribed learning strategies and effective classroom management" (Norman & Atlas, 1978, p. 54). This one-dimension approach to teacher educators needs to be expanded to a multi-dimensional approach, which provides opportunity for development of a wide range of skills. Teachers have been asked to design curriculum, write broad goals and objectives, construct comprehensive inventories, chair professional committees, and conduct research. Yet continuing education curriculum for teachers has overlooked the need for leadership training.

Within a leadership program, teachers need the opportunity to develop personal strengths. "There is no one best or normative style of leadership" (Norman & Atlas, 1978, p. 55). Approaches vary according to the personality of the leader and the situation in which he is working. A theoretical base is fundamental, providing an understanding of the bases of power and possible avenues of influence. These perceptions will determine the approach that person

takes to followers. Going beyond theory, the budding teacher leader needs to develop relationships with others so as to provide bases for interpersonal interaction. There is far greater likelihood that the group will be supportive of leadership if there is interpersonal attraction. Finally, the leadership program should provide the opportunity to practice the skills heretofore dealt with on paper. University settings can often provide tapes and packages which permit leadership students to practice problem-solving, decision-making, and communication skills through simulation. With these types of preparatory experiences, there is little doubt that the teacher leader will be better prepared to exert effective leadership when the opportunities present themselves. Within the school setting, what opportunities are available to teachers who desire to exert leadership of other adults?

Shared Governance

"The most effective teacher-administrator relationship, from the standpoint of both morale and productivity, is a participative one" (Campbell, Bridges, & Nystrand, 1977, p. 254).

Both school administrators and professors of education have recently espoused the benefits of sharing leadership with teachers (Belasco & Alutto, 1972; Duke, 1980; Keef, 1979; Lumley, 1979; Solo, 1979; Thomas, 1979; Weingast, 1980). Some term it "participatory decision making," and others refer to it as "shared governance." Regardless of the terminology, the implication is that teachers will

be recipients of delegated power, the areas and extent of which will be determined by the principal or the superintendent of schools. Solo (1979) located this leadership stance within the bureaucratic sphere, stating:

> Organizational structures are many and varied and can best be seen as a continuum that goes from an absolute dictatorship on the right, through oligarchy, monarchy, and collegial relationships, all the way to communal, shared decision making on the left. (p. 71).

While the concept of shared governance clearly falls left of center, there is wide variation in the kinds of power delegated to teachers.

Duke cited four distinct domains of decision-making involvement within a school system: classroom decisions, professional organization decisions, school system decisions, and single school decisions. The teacher is accustomed to making decisions regarding matters within the confines of the classroom, the first of Duke's four domains. Within the other three domains, he may be a participant in decision making, a role which permits "the free expression of ideas, which, if they have merit, will influence outcomes" (Shane, 1976, p. 116). Involvement in the activities of professional organizations, the second domain, is a matter of personal choice. Though teachers may sometimes provide input for matters of system-wide policy, it is elected or appointed officials who typically make decisions in the third domain. Single school decisions, the fourth area of possible involvement, are those to which most educators refer when advocating greater teacher involvement. Though the potential for decision making differs from system to system and school to school, it is at

the school level that teachers are most likely to experience leadership opportunities (Duke, 1980). Further, Young (1979) found that while teachers' organizations promote the concept of increased involvement, participation in system-wide decision making holds little or no attraction for most classroom teachers.

> School based management takes cognizance of the teacher's strong classroom orientation by moving curriculum decision making to a context close to the teacher's classroom . . . decisions made in that context will have a direct effect on teachers' work with students (their greatest source of satisfaction). (Young, 1979, p. 125)

It would appear that a natural area of teacher involvement in decision making would lie in curricular decisions. Although many educators advocate such involvement, administrative decisions made prior to teacher involvement often constrain the universe of options available to teachers. If administrative decisions have been made with regard to assignment of students, textbook selection, scheduling, and use of standardized tests, teachers will be severely restricted in effecting curriculum change. Sorenson, Rossman, and Barnes (1976) heralded the structure of the IGE (Individually Guided Education) Program as a means of encouraging teacher leadership. Within this program, a teacher is designated as unit leader for every three to five teachers or paraprofessionals. The unit leader's responsibilities include presenting ideas, leading discussions, and facilitating group decision making. While the unit's range of concern is 75 to 150 students, the unit leaders serve on the Instructional Improvement Committee which makes decisions affecting the entire student body.

Lumley (1979) advocated faculty participation in decision making toward the goal of pooled judgments in idea generation, problem exploration, and problem solving. The merit Shane (1976) saw in this procedure is that "Group processes, soundly conceived, imply the free expression of ideas, which, if they have merit, will influence outcomes" (p. 116). Though Lumley recommended use of the National Group Technique or the Delphi Technique for shared decision making, what is not clear is whether the principal will simply view this process as an exercise in "involvement" or whether he will honor the decision of the group.

Keef (1979), Superintendent of Schools at Choteau, Montana, has found the Faculty Senate Policy Committee a vehicle for teacher leadership. It is made up of elected, tenured teachers, with the principal serving as chairman. The chairman does not vote, having only the right of veto. A majority vote will decide any question; a four-fifths majority vote will override the veto. Recommendations go directly to the superintendent and the school board for final action. The benefits Keef saw are two-fold. Faculty involvement has the potential for (1) an improvement in learning, and (2) open lines of communication should raise both the morale and productivity of teachers.

Some school administrators move beyond the scope of curriculum leadership and faculty senate decisions to suggest that the concept of shared governance should also include administrative matters such as screening and hiring new staff members, evaluation of and by

peers, determining the school schedule, and dealing with school policy (Alfonso, 1977; Maguire, 1979; Solo, 1979; Thomas, 1979; Weingast, 1980). Leonard Solo, principal of the Cambridge Alternative Public School in Sudbury, Massachusetts, believed that if schools are for children, the organizational structure should be an inverted pyramid, with teachers at the top as primary decision makers. Other personnel would be below them, supporting their decisions.

The superintendent of the Mansfield, Connecticut School District, Bruce Caldwell, stated that he "is comfortable sharing power and . . . not troubled by giving teachers responsibilities that in most places are the superintendent's own" (Weingast, 1980, p. 502). The Mansfield teachers conceive and write curriculum, help to screen and nominate professional staff, help prepare the budget, schedule their school, and bring recommendations to the Board of Education. One principal commented, "The teachers are professionals. They appreciate the fact that they have control over what happens in the school system" (Weingast, 1980, p. 504).

M. D. Thomas (1979), Superintendent of Schools in Salt Lake City, Utah, has promoted participatory governance since 1974. He described the benefits as "increased attendance, less vandalism, greatly increased teacher salaries, increased parent participation by 400 percent, and reduced teacher turnover" (p. 27). Faculty and parent councils together recommend hours of the school day, faculty meeting and planning period times, class size, teacher/administrator evaluation plans, and accountability plans. The superintendent

believed keys to the success of their shared governance proceed from open communication with all factions of the school system, searching for answers that are acceptable to everyone, and leadership proceeding from knowledge and consensus. "When people ask me, 'Who's in charge of this school system, anyway?' I tell them, 'Whoever has the best solution to the problem we're dealing with'" (Thomas, 1979, p. 28).

More cautious approaches to participatory leadership are voiced by others (Alfonso, 1977; Belasco & Alutto, 1972; Bridges, 1964; Duke, 1980; Young, 1979). Alfonso voiced concern that peer supervision runs the risk of being a random activity, unrelated to school improvement activities or goals. As an adjunct supervisory activity, it holds great potential for instructional improvement and increased respect for fellow teachers. Therefore, operating within organizational guidelines and goals, peer supervision can provide "legitimate involvement of teachers in improving instruction" (Duke, 1980, p. 601). Others enumerated the costs of shared governance as (1) increased demands on time, (2) fear of loss of classroom autonomy, (3) subversion of collective bargaining, and (4) threat of career advancement.

When 1,268 teachers were asked to identify the kinds of curriculum work in which they would like to participate, most saw the district level as more appropriate for such decision making. However, only 22 percent found the opportunity to participate "very attractive." Twenty-four percent found it "not attractive," while

54 percent took an ambivalent stance (Young, 1979, pp. 114-115). The researcher's recommendation was that the context of the local school would be a more appealing site for decision making. Keef (1979) and Sarason (1971) also saw the proper level of effective participation as that of the building site. The value of on-site decision making has been recognized by various policy makers, including shapers of California's Hart Bill, which requires each school district to develop proficiency standards for high school graduation (Oberg, 1975).

Duke (1980) made a distinction between involvement and influence. If participation resulted in mere involvement, it was perceived by teachers as a waste of time. R. Johnson (1975) considered the distinction between the two, seeing participation as "the active involvement or consultation in the process leading up to the decision," and influence as "the art of basically making the decision in question" (p. 16). It appeared that teachers rarely exert influence over most school decisions, therefore having minimal impact on the outcome of the decision-making process. In a University of Michigan study, L. D. Johnson (1975) found considerable discrepancy between the amount of influence teachers would ideally like to have and the actual influence they perceive having. Only in the area of deciding what to cover in courses did these 2,000 high school teachers perceive having influence close to that desired. Considerable differences occurred in the areas of (1) selecting textbooks, (2) selecting what courses to teach, (3) planning curriculum change, (4) making and

carrying out rules of conduct, and (5) evaluating school programs. Furthermore, in rating the importance they perceived school administrators holding for specific school objectives, as compared with their own rating of those objectives, very wide discrepancies were found for all objectives except "high proportion into college." While administrators were perceived as giving moderately high importance to athletic teams, teachers ranked them moderately low. Teachers felt subject matter ranked very high in import; they perceived administrators as seeing this as considerably less important. The widest discrepancy, however, was the extreme importance teachers placed on increasing motivation to learn, and the two-point lower rating they saw administrators giving it. Clearly, these teachers felt they had little influence on their working environment.

When administration actually does share governance with teachers, a host of benefits are cited by educators: (1) feelings of efficacy (ability to control one's environment), (2) increased self-confidence, (3) a sense of "ownership" of the enterprise, (4) personalization of democracy by experiencing power equalization, (5) better understanding of the curriculum, (6) deeper commitment to education, and (7) a greater sense of commitment (Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980; Miller & Dhand, 1973).

A study by Belasco and Alutto (1972) revealed an interesting variable relating to decisional participation and teacher satisfaction. They found that some teachers required more opportunity for participation in order to feel satisfied than others. For those who

desired high levels of involvement and did not experience it, there was increased job tension and attitudes of militancy. The recommendation of the researchers is:

> . . . to increase satisfaction levels where there is a pressing need for differential participative management approaches to meet differential participation desires of various substrata in the overall school population. (Belasco & Alutto, 1972, p. 57)

Regardless of the personal motivation of staff members, Sarason (1971) asserted that the key to an effective organization is the professional and personal development of its staff. He advocated that the growth of members should be the primary purpose of an organization. Its service to others will be more effective over time if the individuals on the staff continue to develop.

> The participative leadership model assumes that as people become more involved in the planning and decision making processes of a school, they will come to a deeper realization of their own basic potentials. (Gibb, 1969, p. 138)

It is logical to conclude that teacher participation in the vital decision making of the school will compound the benefits for all concerned.

Adults in the School Setting

It is common knowledge that teachers influence each other and other adults in the school setting. One of the definitions of leadership is "an interactive process that is intrinsically circular, thus all participants influence and are influenced, or if you please, lead and are led" (Downey, 1970, p. 39). Leadership is usually thought of as a more intentional activity, however. The working

definition for this discussion was set down as "one who influences other group members, getting them to do what he thinks they should do." Whether intentionally or unintentionally, some teachers exert more influence over peers than do others. Some avenues of educator influence with administrators and peers were described in the preceding section. The literature deals with participatory decision making and shared governance, descriptors of influence in matters of curriculum policy, procedure, evaluation of peers, hiring of professional staff, preparation of the school budget, and scheduling (Belasco, 1972; Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980; L. D. Johnston, 1969; Lumley, 1979; Solo, 1979; Sorenson, Rossman, & Barnes, 1976; Thomas, 1979; Weingast, 1980; Young, 1979). These are delegated opportunities for leadership, provided by the principal or superintendent. However, there are more subtle avenues of leadership available to teachers.

Though not dealt with by literature in education, leadership studies have identified personal magnetism (charisma) and professional expertise as strong power bases (Brubaker, 1976; French & Raven, 1960; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Yukl, 1981). Therefore, teachers can effectively influence the thinking and behavior of others by example and through personal contact, providing either intentional or unintentional leadership of other adults. In reference to successful implementation of mainstreaming, Rebore (1980) asserted, "leadership by the teaching faculty is a necessary ingredient" (p. 396). In addition to fellow teachers and administrators, are there other adults in the school setting who could be influenced by a teacher leader?

Aides

A relatively recent newcomer to the educational setting is the classroom aide. Ames (1979) spoke to the teacher-aide relationship, stating, "Teachers also have to provide leadership for other adults, such as paraprofessionals and aides" (p. 108). This adult enters the classroom willing to augment instruction, but without academic preparation to guide either philosophy or technique. The aide's impact on student achievement will be determined by the expertise of the teacher and his effective transmission of goals, insights, and methodology. Furthermore, the aide's potential success will be determined by the teacher-aide relationship. Ames provided guidelines for helping the teacher determine his leadership effectiveness:

1. Is the teacher skilled at getting maximum help from adult assistants, or do the assistants have almost nothing to do?

2. Does the teacher's approach to people encourage them to work toward educational objectives, or . . . put stumbling blocks in the way of those he or she manages?

3. Are the people the teacher manages kept informed about how they are doing and given recognition for a job well done or are they kept in the dark about their progress?

4. Do people the teacher leads know why their job is important, why it is worthy, and what they will gain personally from doing it? (Ames, 1979, p. 108)

These guidelines may be applied to other working relationships in which the teacher is engaged within the school setting. The teacher has a different kind of relationship with the aide than is basic to peer and administrative relationships. In addition to expert power and personal influence, the teacher can also rely on positional power for effecting leadership. Given a close working

relationship with an aide, the teacher will find the influence of professional expertise and charisma more positive avenues of leadership than position power.

Brubaker and Sloan (1981) suggested threads from which the fabric of the teacher-aide relationship could be woven. The first was cooperative decision making, encompassing both what was planned and what actually took place in the classroom. Mutual support was the key to an effective working relationship. Communication of both ideas and feelings was a second essential thread. Sharing of instructional skills and techniques of classroom management was also vital to instructional success of the team. The most critical thread was that of mutually positive attitudes toward the other and the setting that they share. With respect for and acceptance of one another, the teacher and aide would be able to surmount whatever difficulties which lie in their path. Without mutual respect and acceptance, they could not hope to successfully attain their goal of meeting children's instructional and personal needs. Within this relationship, it is the classroom teacher who needs to take the initiative in reaching out, in demonstrating support, in communicating ideology and curriculum plans, in listening, and in encouraging a fellow teacher.

Student Teachers

Leadership opportunity knocks when a teacher is selected to supervise the practice teaching of a college or university student. The pervasiveness of that teacher's influence on the philosophy and

methodology of the student is borne out by numerous research studies (Copeland, 1978, 1979; Fisher, 1980; Kilgore, 1979; McAulay, 1960; Price, 1961; Yee, 1969). Yee asserted, "Student teaching is the most significant aspect of teacher preparation" (p. 327). McAulay (1960) studied the influence of three first-grade teachers on their six student teachers and concluded:

> Student teachers seem to be greatly influenced by the cooperating teachers . . . using methods and materials learned in student teaching and neglecting those presented in methods courses. (p. 83)

Using the Sander's Observation Schedule, Price (1961) established that there is a significant correlation between student teachers' and cooperating teachers' classroom performances. However, the influence goes much further. Using 124 student teachers and 124 cooperating teachers in Austin, Texas, Yee's study revealed that cooperating teachers wield great congruent influence upon student teachers' attitudes, as well. Attempting to determine the nature of student teacher-cooperating teacher influence, Copeland (1978) investigated whether failure to exhibit target skills in the classroom was due to mere forgetting or to the systematic effect of other variables. He found that while the cooperating teacher's utilization of the target skill did serve as a model for the student teacher, the prior conditioning of the group to use of the skill also had a significant role in the student teacher's successful use of the skill. There is measurable transfer of competencies from cooperating teachers to student teachers (Fisher, 1980; Kilgore, 1979).

While position power is available to the cooperating teacher (through assignment of letter grade and professional recommendations), his effectiveness in relating to the student teacher will be enhanced if avenues of influence predominately used are those of expertise and personal power.

Volunteers

Though many teachers do not experience the opportunity for leadership of aides or student teachers, all teachers can solicit the help of volunteers. These people may be parents of students, citizens interested in helping children, or older students selected to tutor younger ones. A characteristic which volunteers usually share is that they have little or no academic preparation for the tasks which they are assigned. If their time is to be used effectively, teacher leadership is a necessity. Plans and instructions are essential. If insight into children or philosophy and goals are communicated, the volunteer's instruction is more likely to be successful. One key to success, however, is the relationship which develops between volunteer and teacher. "Volunteer programs succeed when teachers really want the help of volunteers and when they . . . become coworkers" (Cuninggim, 1980, p. 110). Though position power is rarely available as the teacher relates to the volunteer, expertise and personal influence can be effective motivators.

Beckman (1979) perceived the volunteer program as encouraging teacher leadership through use of teacher coordinator for the program. In-service training was also advantageous to volunteers,

while presenting an excellent opportunity for development of teacher leadership. Though the avenue of influence may vary with the situation and personalities involved, teachers do have leadership opportunity as they interact with classroom volunteers.

Parents

Very little support for the concept of the teacher as a leader of parents could be found in the literature. The more positive approaches to the parent-teacher relationship suggest the reasons for interaction lie in (1) gaining the teacher's observations of the child's progress, (2) observing the child's responses to peers and teacher, (3) helping the teacher to better know the child, and (4) engaging parental help with classroom objectives (Gruenberg, 1968; Peairs & Peairs, 1980; Spock, 1976). Less constructive approaches to the parent-teacher interaction were offered by other writers. In speaking to the needs of the exceptional child, Melton (1972) viewed the teacher as an adversary. He suggested that the proper approach to getting desired services for the child include (1) coercion, (2) playing the game of school politics (back-slapping and subtle manipulating), (3) devious flattery, and (4) constant communication so as to assure this child more than his share of attention. Kappelman and Ackerman (1980) cautioned against appearing antagonistic toward the teacher, suggesting that the parent be fully aware of the child's progress, seek information, and "appear as an educational team member to the school personnel" (p. 245).

Though the justification was strictly academic, Peairs and Peairs (1980) did advocate a strong parent-teacher relationship. They observed, "You and your child's teacher are the most important people in his life. He benefits when you know each other" (p. 312). The mutual concerns of parents and teachers provide a common basis for relating. Because each sees the child in different settings, and because each feels much concern for the child's welfare, it is reasonable to conclude that parent-teacher relationships will develop. When this occurs, there exists the probability that the teacher leader can influence the parent's thinking toward the child. A teacher can provide objective information about the young person's academic, social, emotional, and physical development.

Of equal importance, however, can be his subjective perspective of that development. If the educator presents a negative picture of the child, focusing on deficiencies, the parent may accept that image and convey it to the child through words or behavior. On the other hand, should the teacher present an optimistic outlook, giving import to both the child's strengths and needs, the parent will be more likely to accept that vantage point. Without condemnation, the child can be helped in areas of specific need while receiving acceptance and praise. As a result of the teacher's influence on parent perspective, prospects for optimal child growth will be improved.

The potential for parent acceptance of the teacher's leadership will be dependent upon the relationship which exists between them and the referent power which the parent perceives the educator to

have. While coercion may be a form of position power available to the teacher, its use would destroy the possibility of influencing the parent through more positive avenues of influence (expertise or charisma).

Assuming there is a phenomenon which may be described as teacher leadership of other adults, who is in a position to identify it? When it is identified, what characteristics tend to describe it?

Leadership Theory

The leadership phenomenon has been the focus of research studies for much of the twentieth century. Widespread use of psychological testing since 1920 encouraged the trait approach to understanding the nature of leadership (Yukl, 1981). That approach assumes there are certain inherent characteristics which are essential for effective leadership. Those characteristics are thought to be transferable from one situation to another. For example, Ordway Tead (1935) asserted that there are ten qualities essential for effective leadership: physical and nervous energy, a sense of purpose and direction, enthusiasm, friendliness and affection, integrity, technical mastery, decisiveness, intelligence, teaching skill, and faith. On the other hand, Chester I. Barnard identified other characteristics such as physique, skill, technology, perception, endurance, and courage (Barnard, 1938, p. 260). Reviewing early leadership literature, Stogdill (1948) reported on 124 trait studies from 1904 to 1948. Characteristics differing between leaders and nonleaders included intelligence, alertness to the needs of others, understanding of the

task, initiative and persistence in dealing with problems, self-confidence, and desire to keep responsibility and occupy a position of dominance and control. In a more recent review of 163 studies (1949 to 1970), Stogdill (1974) found research dealing with the relationship between leader traits and leader effectiveness. Successful leaders were often found to have a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons' behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand.

A problem related to the trait approach to leadership is that there are few consistent findings. Seldom do two lists agree on essential characteristics (Heckmann & Huneryager, 1960). Eugene Jennings concluded, "Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders" (Hersey, 1977, p. 89).

Another approach to the study of leadership is to analyze situation factors. While not denying the importance of leadership characteristics, proponents of the situational approach contend that a leader's behavior is governed by the context of the leadership behavior. Who becomes the leader and how effective that person can be are contingent upon the needs and personalities in the setting. Heckmann (1960) concluded, "A basic conclusion of the situationist approach is that the successful leader must be adaptive and flexible"

(p. 49). Fred E. Fiedler's research has identified leadership styles which match situational factors. He asserted that in job situations which are extremely easy or difficult, a strong task-oriented leader is most effective. In situations which are moderately difficult, a human-relations leader is most effective (since human relationships are the critical problem) (Fiedler, 1967).

A third theory of leadership attributes responsibility for leader selection and success to the characteristics of subordinates. Prescribing to the "follower theory," Fillmore Sanford (1951) stated:

> It is the follower as an individual who perceives the leader, who perceives the situation, and who, in the last analysis, accepts or rejects leadership. The follower's persistent motives, points of view, frames of reference, or attitudes will have a hand in determining what he perceives and how he reacts to it. (p. 159)

Yukl (1981) viewed group characteristics and individual subordinate characteristics as intervening variables in leader effectiveness. He concluded, "the leader's behavior influences the intervening variables and they in turn affect group performance" (p. 153).

Factors influencing leader effectiveness include (1) subordinate effort, (2) subordinate role clarity, (3) subordinate task skills, (4) task-role organization, (5) group cohesiveness and teamwork, and (6) leader-subordinate relations (Yukl, 1981). While the power base of the teacher leader varies with the adult group being influenced, it is obvious that leader effectiveness will be dependent upon relationships with followers. Further, opportunities for delegated leadership will be more likely if there exist positive and open

relationships with superiors. These intervening variables will affect the degree of leadership a teacher will be able to exert.

Teacher Leadership

Little research has been done in the area of teacher leadership. Many articles support the concept, discussing it from the vantage point of participatory decision making and shared governance. In "Leadership: The Teacher's Option," Ruth Drake described characteristics she saw as consistent with the role of the educational leader.

1. He works independently and with self-confidence.
2. He makes his own decisions and is fully accountable for their results.
3. He strives continually for self-improvement and welcomes opportunities to grow professionally.
4. He is creative. He develops and eagerly shares new ideas, plans, and materials.
5. He fulfills his professional obligations promptly and with good grace.
6. He is proud of his profession and projects his enthusiasm to his colleagues and others with whom he comes in contact.
7. He adheres to his top priority--to improve the quality of education so that each child may eventually achieve his maximum potential. (1977, p. 291)

Drake subscribed to both the trait and situationist approaches to leadership. Innate traits which she perceived to be essential include vision, creativity, sound judgment, commitment, above-average intelligence, ability to communicate, and inner drive to achieve. However, she qualified their applicability, saying, "The qualities,

characteristics, and skills required of the leader are determined largely by the demands of a given situation" (p. 293). Training in leadership skills is necessary so that teachers will be prepared when opportunities present themselves. Pre- and in-service courses geared to leadership theory and skills need to be made available to teachers (Drake, 1977; Norman & Atlas, 1978). Emphasizing the need to develop a largely untapped potential existing within the ranks of classroom educators, Drake asserted:

> Now the classroom teacher is daring to conceive of himself as a leader. Innovative programs create a plethora of positions to challenge his leadership capabilities. If teachers do not fill the voids these changes produce, others will. ((1977, p. 291)

In an effort to isolate characteristics of teacher leaders, Brownlee (1979) established that both teachers and principals could identify teachers who were exerting leadership of other adults within their own settings. Leadership was defined as "persons who affect the behavior of a group of people. . . individuals whose insights and judgments command the respect of their peers!" (Campbell, Corbally, & Ramseyer, 1966, p. 168). Brownlee's study involved a questionnaire which named each teacher in the school, and was completed by full-time teachers and the principal. Two hundred forty-four teachers and eight principals in ten Chicago public schools participated in the study. On a five-point scale, each teacher was rated according to the influence he was perceived to have in effecting positive, negative, or neutral change on curriculum, programs, faculty, administration, nonteaching personnel, students, and parents. Analysis

of data identified 62 teacher leaders in ten schools. Significantly, it was found that principals and teachers agreed on identified teacher leaders ($r = .73$; $p < .05$), with influence ratings ranging from low moderate to high moderate. Characteristics found to clearly differentiate the teacher leader from other teachers included:

1. Teacher leaders had more formal education than the other teachers in the school.

2. Leaders had more years of teaching experience than other teachers in the school.

3. Teacher leaders communicated with the other teachers in the school more frequently than the other teachers did.

4. Teacher leaders were older than the mean age of the other teachers in the school.

5. Teacher leaders had taught in their present school longer than the other teachers.

6. Teacher leaders were rated higher than the other teachers in the school on their knowledge of curriculum, instructional skills, classroom management, and professional relationships with students, faculty, administration, and parents.

7. The more formal education the teacher leaders had, the higher they were rated on knowledge of curriculum, instructional skills, classroom management, and professional relationships.

8. The more years of teaching experience the teacher leaders had, the higher they were rated on knowledge of curriculum, instructional skills, classroom management, and professional relationships.

9. The more years of teaching experience the teacher leaders had, the more formal education they had. (Brownlee, 1979, pp. 120-121)

Applying leadership theory to these characteristics, many of the findings refer to personal or professional traits, specifically:

more formal education, older than the mean age of other teachers in the school, more years of teaching experience, and higher rating in knowledge of curriculum, instructional skills, classroom management, and professional relationships. However, situational factors can be identified as well: more years of teaching experience, and presence in the school longer than other teachers. The third leadership approach, the follower theory, may be seen in the finding that teacher leaders had more frequent communication with fellow staff members.

A careful search of the literature was implemented by an initial hand search, an ERIC search, and follow-up on all pertinent bibliographic citations. Yet the only study found to be germane to teacher leadership of other adults was Brownlee's (1979) "Characteristics of Teacher Leaders." While it has provided much needed insight into the phenomenon of teacher leadership, it suggested as many questions as it answered. What is the focus of that teacher: educational leadership, social leadership, or political leadership? Is that leadership intentional or unintentional? Which type of leadership would a principal perceive to be outstanding in his school? How would characteristics of teacher leaders compare with randomly selected members of the faculty? These are questions which remain to be answered.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Subjects

The subjects for the study were 42 elementary teachers from two school systems in Cabarrus County, situated in the Piedmont area of North Carolina. Six of the schools were located in Concord or Kannapolis, while five were situated in rural settings surrounding those municipalities (see Table 1). Subjects spanned the age range of 21 years to 65 years, and had teaching experience ranging from one year to 16 or more years. Forty-one participants were female; one was male.

Procedures

Principals of the 11 schools were contacted directly, either in person or by telephone. Prior to that contact, each had received administrative support for participation in the study and copies of a statement of purpose (Appendix A), a cover letter, and a research questionnaire (Appendix B). The purpose of the study was discussed with the principal, and a definition of teacher leadership was provided. For purposes of the study, the teacher leader was defined as one who influences other group members, getting them to do what he thinks they should do. The principal was then asked to identify one to three full-time faculty members who exemplified

Table 1

Participating Schools

Schools	Grades Taught	No. of Teachers	Teacher Leaders	Teachers Randomly Chosen
Cabarrus County Schools				
A. T. Allen	K-6	17	2	2
Bethel	K-6	23	2	2
Harrisburg	K-6	34	2	2
Mount Pleasant	K-6	48	3	3
Royal Oaks	K-6	16	2	2
W. R. Odell	K-6	37	2	2
Winecoff	K-6	46	2	2
Wolf Meadow	K-6	36	2	2
Concord City Schools				
Beverly Hills	K-5	14	1	1
Coltrane Webb	K-5	28	2	2
R. B. McAllister	K-5	18	1	1

that definition. Upon identification, the researcher asked the principal to briefly describe the teacher leader, specifying attributes which contributed to the educator's leadership. Other questions asked by the researcher included the following:

1. Though teacher leadership and instructional skill are not necessarily synonymous, would you consider this teacher to be one of your best teachers?

2. Would you perceive this teacher's leadership to be intentional or unintentional?
3. Do you see this teacher to be your hardest working or among your hardest working employees?
4. Would you perceive this teacher to provide educational leadership, social leadership, or political leadership to your staff, or some combination of those?

Following administrative identification of teacher leaders, an equal number of full-time faculty members were randomly chosen from an alphabetical listing of certified personnel in each of the 11 schools. Gay's (1976) Table of Random Numbers was utilized in selection of teachers not identified as leaders. A questionnaire for each study participant was then prepared, with a form code identifying the type of leadership the respondent presumably represented. The code was:

1 = Educational leadership

2 = Social leadership

3 = Political leadership

4 = Subject randomly chosen from full-time faculty.

The subject's name was paper-clipped to the questionnaire, ensuring completion by the teacher described by the form code. The name could then be removed prior to return to the researcher, providing anonymity for all subjects. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes were provided for return of questionnaires. There was 100 percent return of questionnaires by the 42 participants in the study.

Instrument

A self-report research questionnaire was developed so as to gather standardized, quantifiable information from subjects in both the experimental (leader) and control (nonleader) groups. In order to test the hypotheses, it was necessary for the researcher to develop an instrument which gathered the following data: (1) descriptive and professional information, (2) educational philosophy, (3) nonteaching activities, and (4) interaction with other adults.

Items were closed form in structure, constructed in a multiple-choice or rank order format. Each item directly related to one or more of the hypotheses. Background research pointed to variables which would be expected to differentiate leaders and nonleaders. Significant findings in the Brownlee (1979) study provided guidance in the construction of items 1, 2, 4, 6, and 26. The nature of those findings almost exclusively related teacher leadership to time-related characteristics, such as years of teaching experience, years in the current school setting, age of the teacher, and highest level of education. The only other factor identified by the Brownlee study which proved to be significantly related to teacher leadership of other adults was the frequency of teacher communication with peers. Item 26 was based on this finding, but was refined so as to constrict the nature of communication, limiting it to provision of information or suggestions for fellow teachers. Two items related to the subject's activity within professional organizations, a suggestion of a member of the researcher's doctoral committee.

All items were validated by comparison of assumptions with characteristics of four teacher leaders known to the researcher (Gay, 1976). The instrument was reviewed by several educational experts in administration or higher education before final construction of the 50-item research questionnaire.

Internal consistency of the instrument was established using the Likert attitude scale approach (Likert, 1972). That technique holds that any particular item which does not correlate positively with the overall scale score is not serving a differentiating function. Internal consistency, therefore, identifies those items in response outcome and filters them. Each questionnaire item related directly to one or more of the hypotheses of the study. Item organization within the instrument fell into the categories of: (1) general questions, (2) relationship with administration and other teachers, (3) relationship with parents, (4) relationship with aide, (5) relationship with student teachers, and (6) relationship with volunteers. Based on the Likert theory, the study's statistical research adviser approved the 50-item questionnaire. Those items were determined to differentiate the teacher leader and the nonleader within interactive settings. Items were also judged to be consistent both with hypotheses and all available information on the nature of teacher leadership.

Design

Data compiled from the 42 questionnaires were analyzed in several ways. All statistical procedures were approved by the study's statistical adviser, Dr. Edward L. Palmer (doctoral advisee of Dr. James L. Bruning, co-author of Computational Handbook of Statistics (2nd ed.), 1977).

Responses of subjects were tabulated for each question, identifying the participant's response choice according to the leader or nonleader designation. Given the two types of item format (multiple-choice and rank order), appropriate statistical procedures were determined and applied to each.

Multiple-choice items were first analyzed by computation of simple percentages of leaders and nonleaders choosing each response option. (Since differences between groups were obvious, it was important to determine the applicability of those findings to a similar population by means of an appropriate statistical procedure.) Chi square was the test of significance which was determined to be appropriate to multiple-choice data in this study. The basis of this choice was outlined by Gay (1976): "Chi square . . . is a non-parametric test of significance . . . which compares frequencies occurring in different categories . . . or groups" (p. 257). In this study, only the nonleaders were randomly selected; therefore, the sample was not uniformly parametric. The chi-square analysis applied to multiple-choice data in this study compared the effects of two variables, where one of the variables had more than two

groups (Bruning & Kintz, 1977). An example of this complex chi-square analysis is the comparison of Variable I, leaders and non-leaders, with Variable II, age ranges of subjects (21-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-65 years). Applying the chi-square formula given by Bruning (1977), it was found that while nonleaders tend to come from the 21 to 30 age bracket, leaders in the study did not, significant at the .05 level. (The significance level signifies that less than five times out of a hundred would a difference this large occur by chance.)

Responses to rank-order items were initially tallied, identifying the first through last choices for each leader and nonleader. Descriptive analysis was made by tabulation of response frequency for each choice option. Modal first, second, and last choices were determined for experimental and control groups for each rank order question. For example, Question 42 examined important kinds of influence the cooperating teacher perceives self to have on a student teacher. The most frequent first choice of teacher leaders was "helping the student develop a personal sense of purpose or philosophy" and the modal second choice was "molding attitudes toward children." Nonleaders' most frequent first choice was "sharing effective teaching techniques." The modal last choice of both groups was "fostering competent use of a variety of materials." To determine whether differences between groups reached levels of statistical significance (and therefore, applicable to a similar population), the t test for independent samples was used. This test is

appropriate for comparison of two groups which were randomly formed (as opposed to groups systematically matched on the basis of similar characteristics). In this study, it was hypothesized that leaders differed systematically from nonleaders. The *t* test for independent samples was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The appropriate computational formula was provided by Bruning (1977), as well as a table for determining whether the derived quantity attained statistical significance.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Results

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis stated: in comparing questionnaire responses by teacher leaders and a randomly selected equal number of teachers not so identified, significant differences between characteristics of the two groups will be revealed in (1) personal characteristics, (2) professional characteristics, (3) educational philosophy, and (4) activities outside the classroom.

Personal characteristics. Questions 5 and 6 deal with personal information relating to age and sex of the subjects. Their responses indicate that 100 percent of the nonleaders were female, while 95 percent of the leaders were female and five percent male. Figure 1 presents information regarding the age range of subjects. While none of the teacher leaders was in the 21-to-30 age range, 29 percent of the nonleaders came within this age bracket. This difference was statistically significant (chi square = 6.47, df = 2, $p < .05$). Within the older age brackets, there were more teacher leaders than nonleaders, but numerical differences were not statistically significant.

Professional characteristics. A second time-related aspect of teacher leadership was significantly related to professional

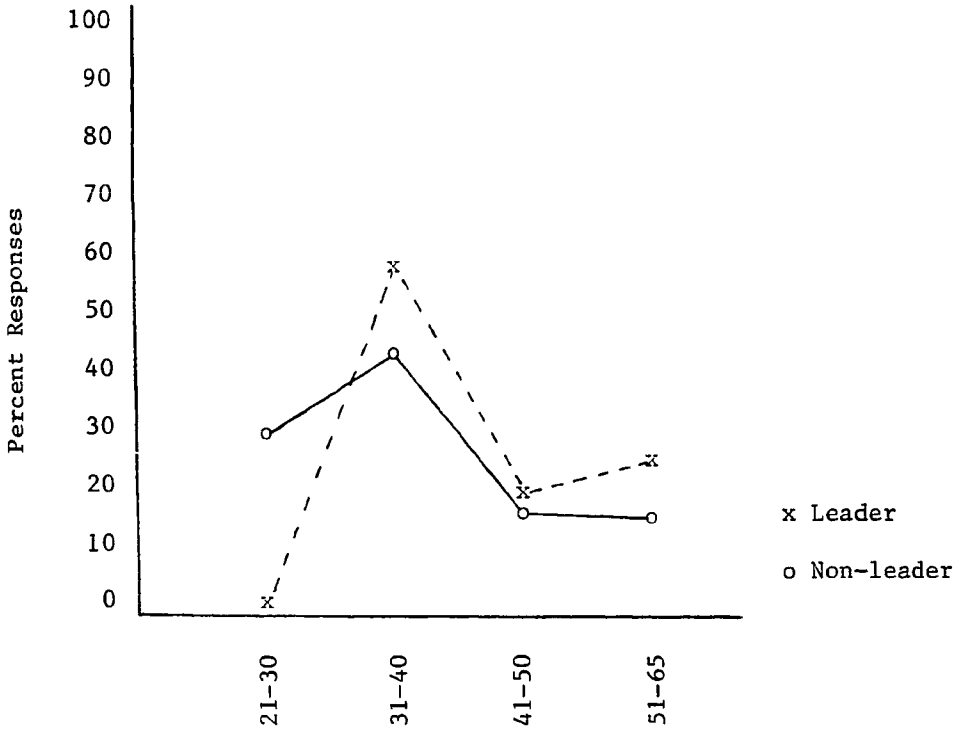

Figure 1. Age range of sample

characteristics. Question 1 established that while 86 percent of the teacher leaders had 11 or more years of teaching experience, only 48 percent of the nonleaders were in this category (Figure 2). The response-pattern difference was statistically significant (chi square = 7.4, df = 2, $p < .05$).

Though 86 percent of teacher leaders had earned a master's degree or higher (Question 2), 62 percent of the nonleaders had also earned a master's, producing a pattern which did not attain statistical significance (Figure 3). Other nondiscriminating factors between the two groups included the grade level they were currently teaching (Question 3), number of years in their present school setting (Question 4), whether or not they had an aide (Question 7), had supervised student teachers (Question 8), motivation for teaching (Question 16), and plans for five years hence (Question 19) (Figures 4 through 8). However, in many of these areas, there was an obvious trend. For example, no teacher leader had been in the current school setting for less than three years; 14 percent of the nonleaders had only been in the school one or two years. Fifty-seven percent of the leaders had been teaching at that school nine or more years, while only 48 percent of the nonleaders had been there that long. In addition, though nonleaders had been assigned student teachers, 43 percent of the teacher leaders had worked with four or more young educators. Only ten percent of the nonleaders had worked with four or more. Motivation for teaching for both groups centered around enjoyment of children and sense of purpose.

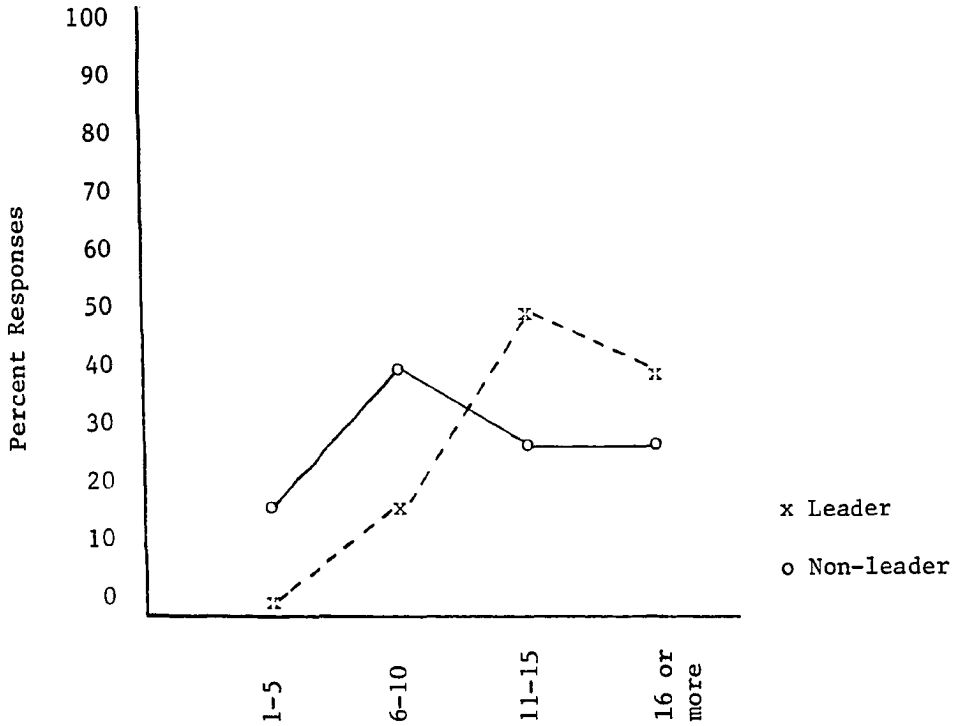

Figure 2. Years of teaching experience

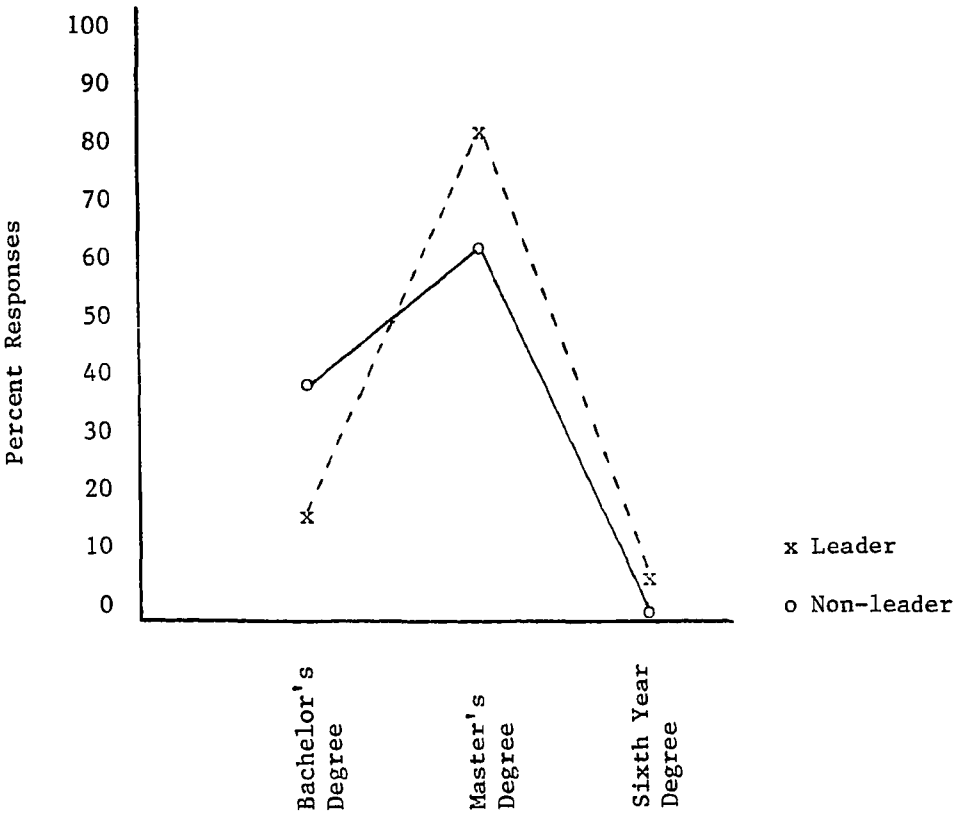

Figure 3. Highest level of education

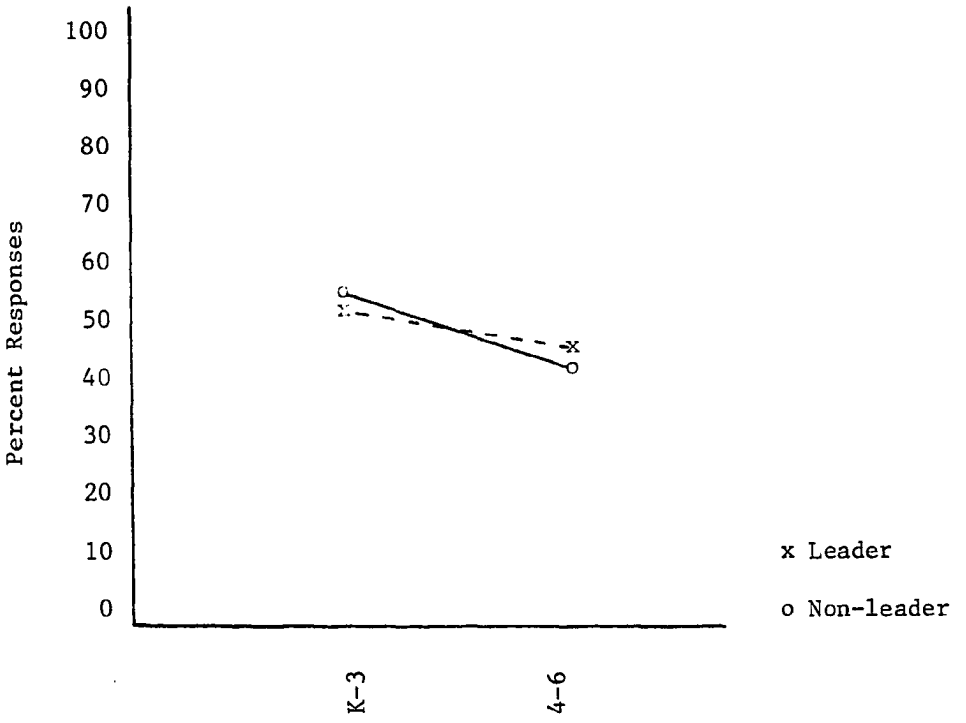

Figure 4. Current teaching assignment

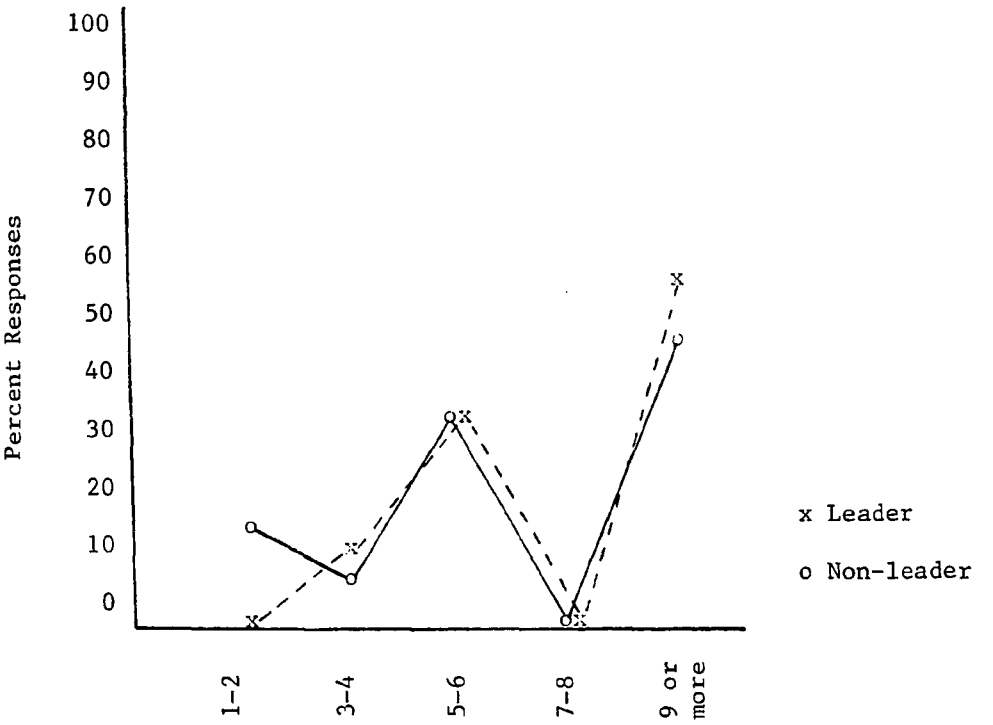

Figure 5. Number of years in this school

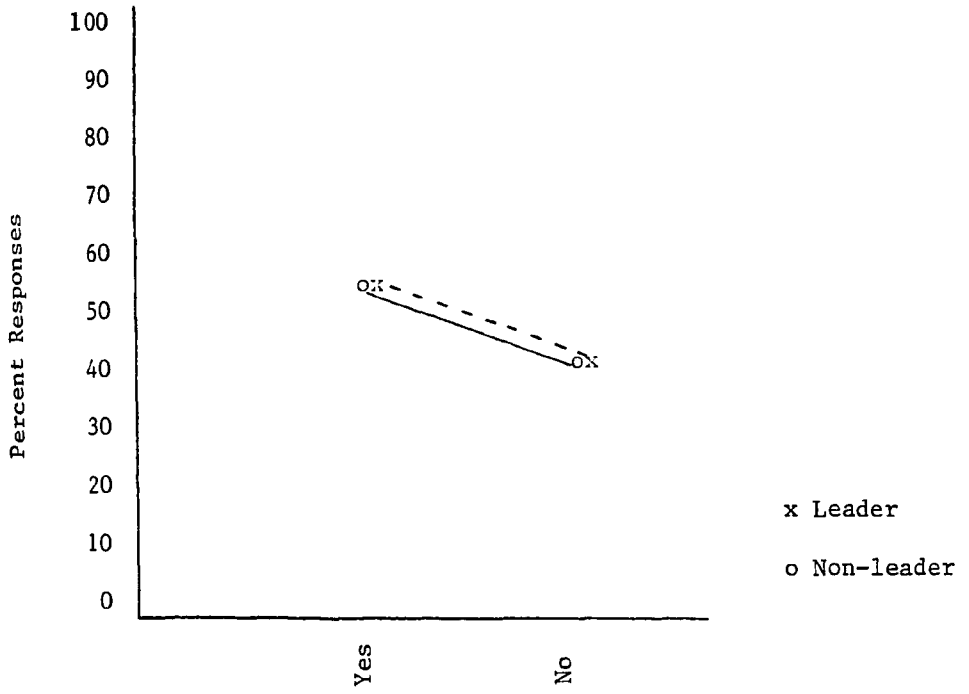

Figure 6. Teachers working with an aide

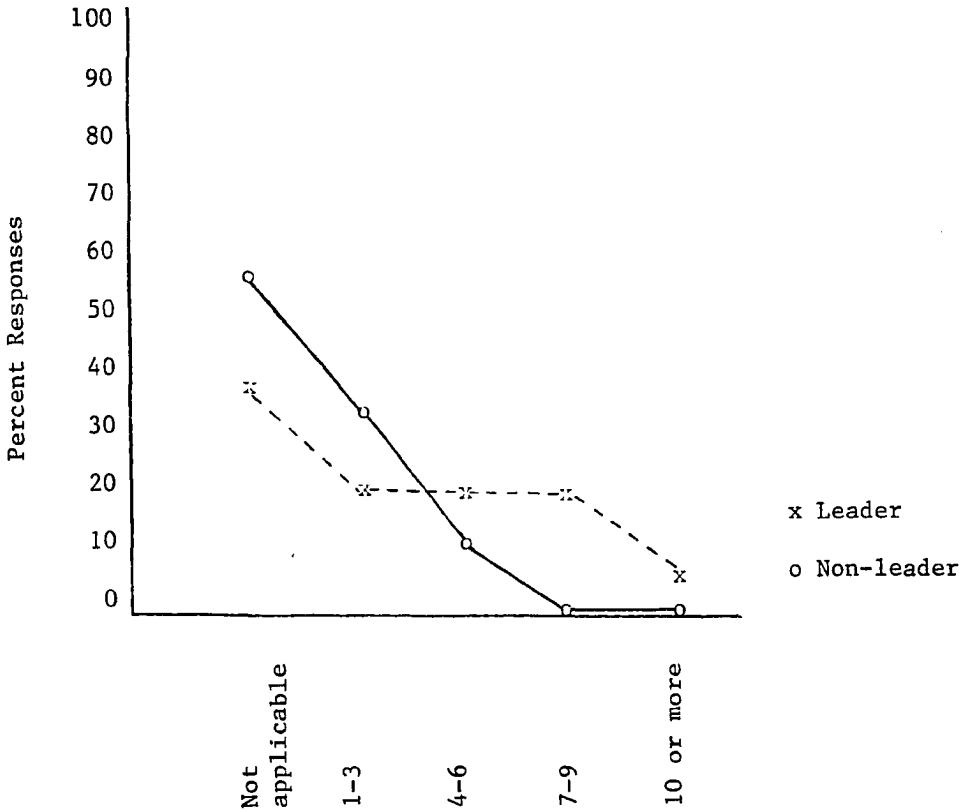

Figure 7. Number of student teachers supervised

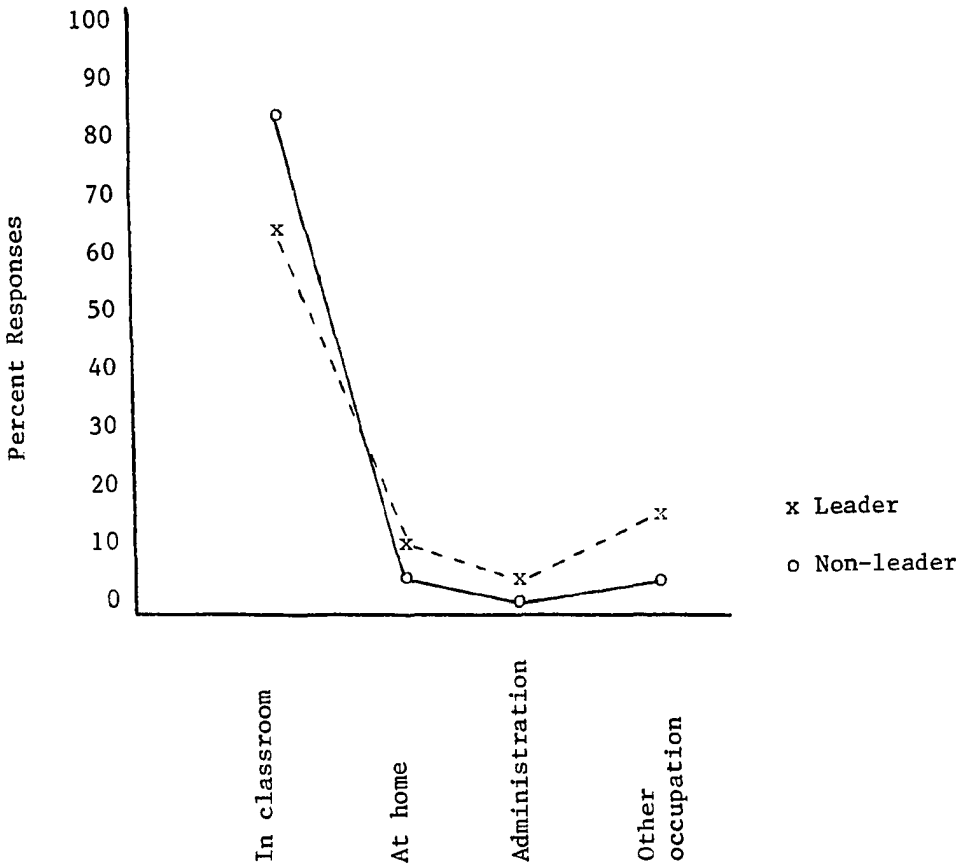

Figure 8. Projection of five years

Question 19 requests a projection of five years into the future. Sixty-seven percent of leaders and 86 percent of nonleaders saw themselves still teaching in the classroom five years hence. Nineteen percent of leaders and five percent of nonleaders saw themselves in supervisory or administrative roles or in another occupation. While there were differences in the response patterns of teacher leaders and nonleaders, they were not wide enough to produce statistical significance.

Educational philosophy. The following questionnaire items related to the philosophic orientation of the subjects: 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 34, 36, 40, and 44.

One of the two most significant results in the area of educational philosophy dealt with the professional role of the teacher. The teacher leader was significantly more likely to see his professional role as "including educational leadership of other adults in the school" rather than being confined to classroom effectiveness (chi square = 7.428, df = 1, $p < .01$). Conversely, nonleaders perceived their professional role as confined to the classroom (Question 20).

A second significant outcome related to the reward teachers gain from their profession (Question 18). While the modal (most frequent) first choice of both leaders and nonleaders was that reward was mainly related to children's overall development, the teacher leader was significantly more likely to find reward in children's academic growth than the nonleader ($t = 2.69$, $p < .02$). The most frequently

cited source of least reward for nonleaders, interestingly, was "opportunity for professional leadership of adults and children." Leaders found the least important source of reward to be "receipt of professional and personal support by administration." However, this response does not appear to be related to relationships with administration. In response to Question 11, "Does your principal sometimes consult with you about school matters?" 100 percent of the leaders answered in the affirmative, in comparison to 86 percent of the nonleaders (Figure 9).

Both leaders and nonleaders found their main purpose to be "to nurture and guide children toward maximum growth" (Question 15). The modal last choice for both groups was "to grow and develop in my profession."

In identifying the school's main purpose (Question 14), both teacher leaders and nonleaders unanimously chose the response option "to meet the multi-faceted needs of children." It is the only item in the questionnaire for which there was 100 percent agreement both within and between groups.

Groups were also basically in agreement as to primary motivation for teaching (Question 16). Teacher leaders more often chose "sense of purpose" as their basic motivation with "enjoyment of children" being chosen nearly as often. Ninety-three percent of all teacher-leader responses fell into one of these two categories. Nonleaders chose "enjoyment of children" as their primary motivation for teaching and "sense of purpose" as their second most important motivation, with 88 percent making these first and second choices.

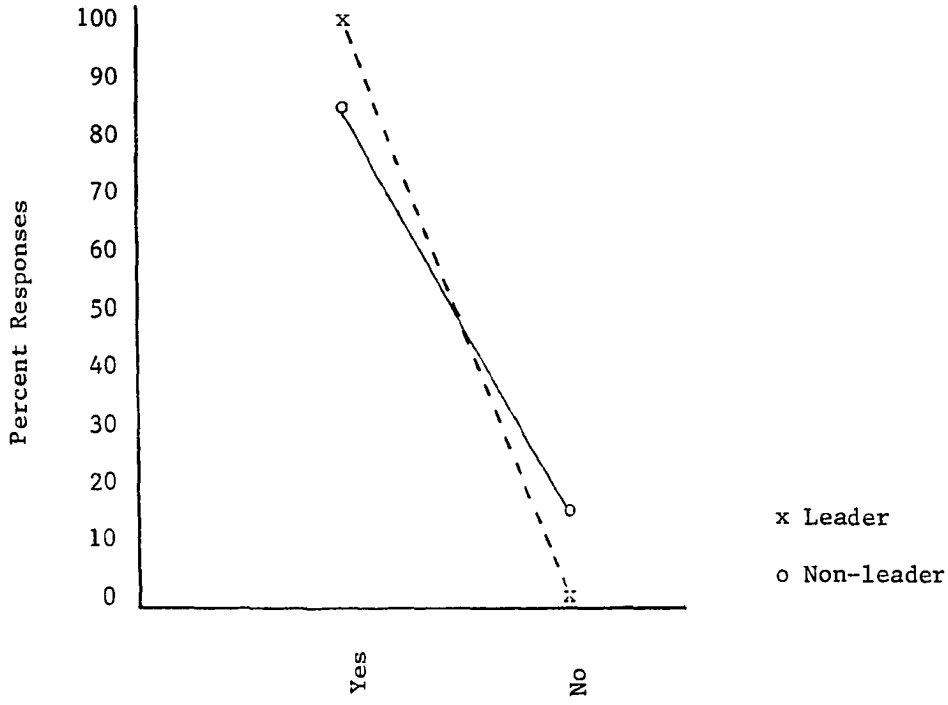

Figure 9. Teacher consulted by principal

Speaking to disappointment experienced within their profession (Question 17), both groups most frequently cited lack of student motivation. This was the first choice of 61 percent of leaders and 53 percent of nonleaders. The least important source of disappointment for leaders was "lack of administrative support," last choice of 50 percent of leaders and 16 percent of nonleaders. While there was not a significant difference between groups, nonleaders more often tended to express their greatest disappointment as being "lack of commitment within the profession."

Insight into philosophy of teaching, as well as parent-teacher interaction, could be gained from Question 34, which dealt with the impact teachers would like to have on parents. Modal distribution reveals both teacher leaders and nonleaders desire to encourage a (parent's) positive perspective toward the child. Forty-five percent of leaders and 38 percent of nonleaders made this their first choice. The last choice of both groups (80 percent of leaders, and 67 percent of nonleaders) was "to engender support for the school in the community." Though there were no statistically significant differences between groups, it is interesting to note that the second most frequently occurring first choice of leaders was "to offer insights into the child's strengths and weaknesses," while the second most frequently occurring first choice of nonleaders was "to generate concern for behavior or academic problems."

Attitude toward adjunct personnel in the classroom is revealed by Questions 36 and 44. In response to how children view the

classroom aide, 15 percent of nonleaders and 33 percent of leaders said she was perceived to be a helper, while 85 percent of the nonleaders and 67 percent of the leaders saw her as another teacher. The outcome was reversed when teachers were asked how children viewed student teachers with whom they had worked. Rather than perceiving that person as a college student, 77 percent of the teacher leaders reported that children tended to view him as "another teacher," while only 67 percent of nonleaders held this perception (Figures 10 and 11). In generalizing about student teachers, teacher leaders who had worked with one or more of these young people tended to feel more positive toward them than did nonleaders. Sixty-seven percent of teacher leaders characterized them first as having "a wealth of undeveloped potential," and last as "is often ill-prepared for classroom teaching." Fifty percent of the nonleaders made these same responses (Question 40).

Nonteaching activities. Questions dealing with nonteaching activities of teachers include items 8 through 13, 22, 26, 27, 28. These activities include working with student teachers, aides, parents, serving on committees, and involvement in professional organization.

While 43 percent of nonleaders had supervised student teachers, 33 percent had worked with only one to three young people (Question 8). In contrast, 62 percent of the surveyed teacher leaders had supervised student teachers with the majority of that group working with four or more.

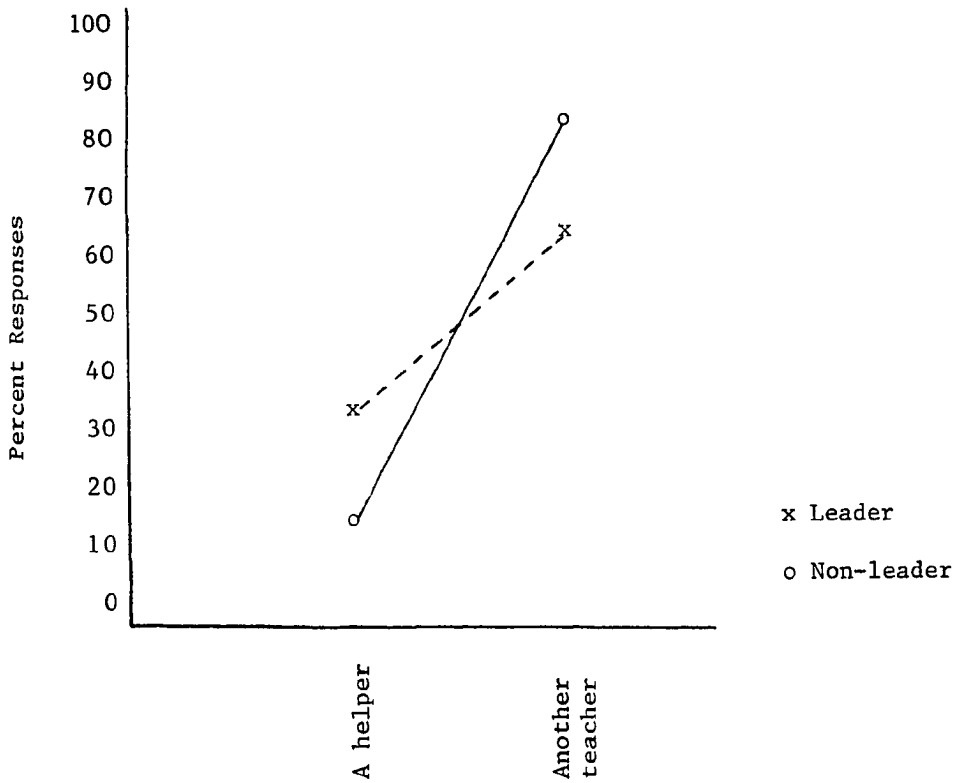

Figure 10. Student view of aide

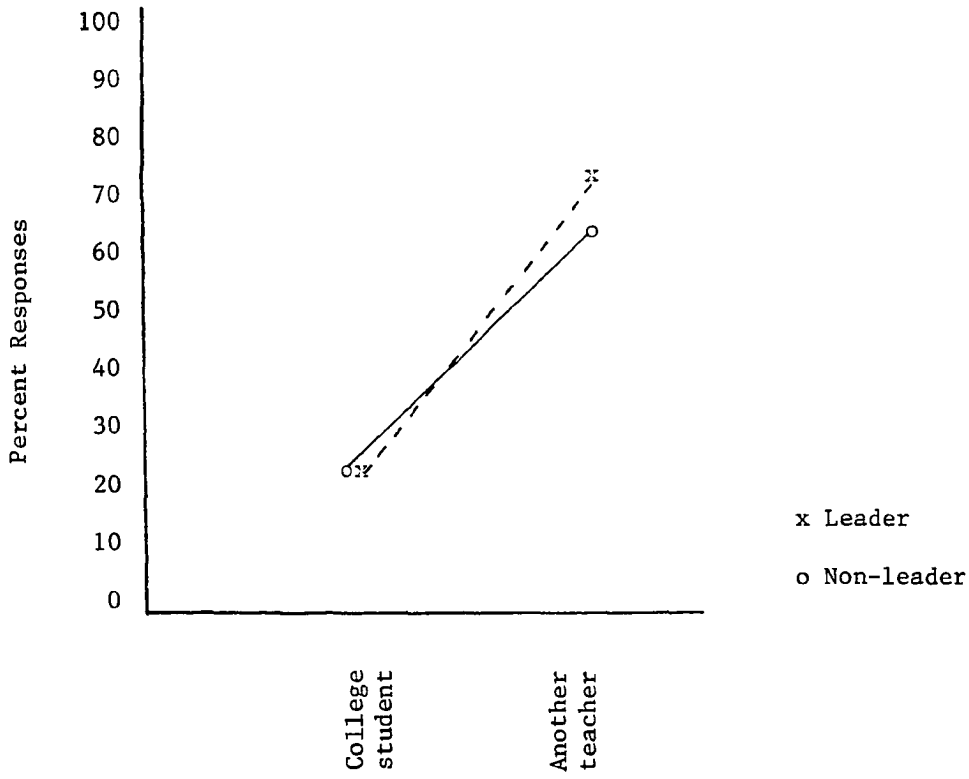

Figure 11. Student view of student teacher

Significant difference between groups was found in response to the question, "Have you ever led a workshop for adults?" (Question 9). Sixty-two percent of teacher leaders responded affirmatively, while only 24 percent of the nonleaders did (chi square = 6.22, df = 1, $p < .025$) (Figure 12).

The contrast between groups was also apparent when teacher leaders reported that 91 percent had served as chairperson of a school or system-wide committee, as opposed to 67 percent of nonleaders (Question 10) (Figure 13). One-hundred percent of teacher leaders responded affirmatively to the question regarding principals consulting with them. Fourteen percent of nonleaders said their principals did not consult with them regarding school matters (Question 11).

Teacher leaders were far more active in professional organizations than the control group. Ninety-five percent of them belonged to four or more (Question 12). In contrast, ten percent of nonleaders held no membership in a professional organization, and 19 percent belonged to only one (Figure 14). The difference in professional activity is statistically significant (chi square = 6.00, df = 1, $p < .025$). This professional activity was evident both in the number of organizational memberships held and in the intensity of involvement within given organizations (Question 13). Sixty-two percent of teacher leaders reported being a past or present officer in one or more organizations, in contrast to 19 percent of nonleaders (chi square = 4.58, df = 1, $p < .05$) (Figure 15).

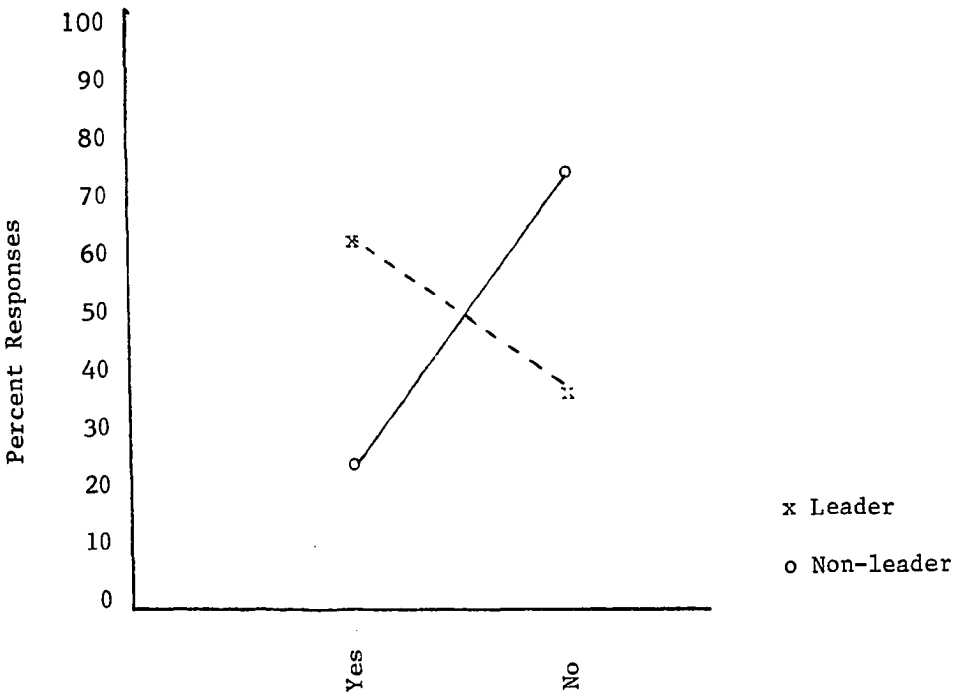

Figure 12. Teachers who have led a workshop for adults

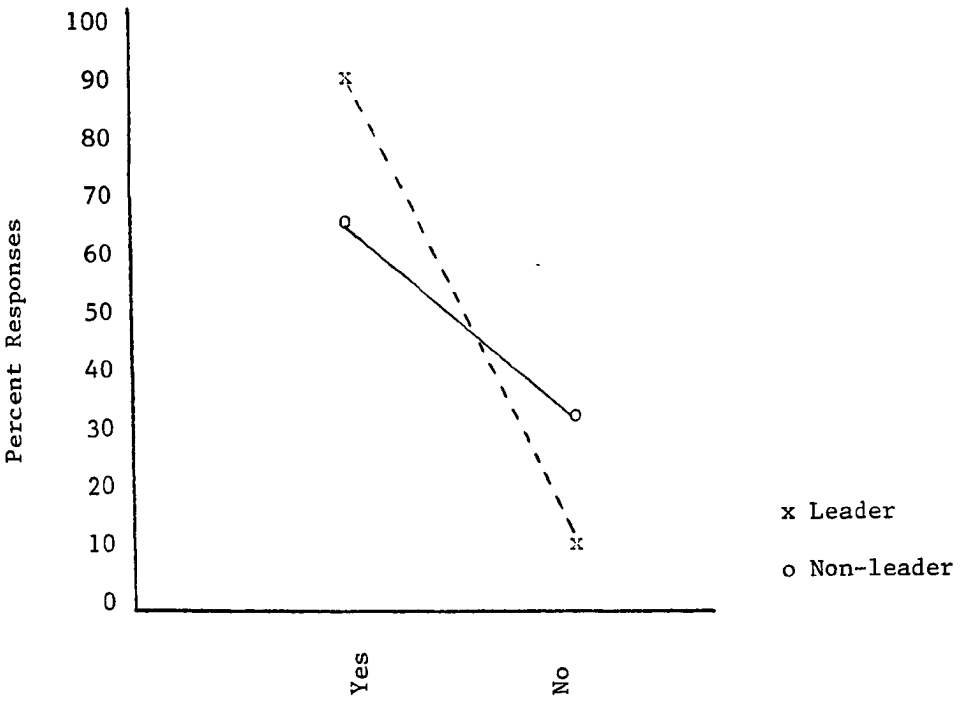

Figure 13. Chairperson of school or system-wide committee

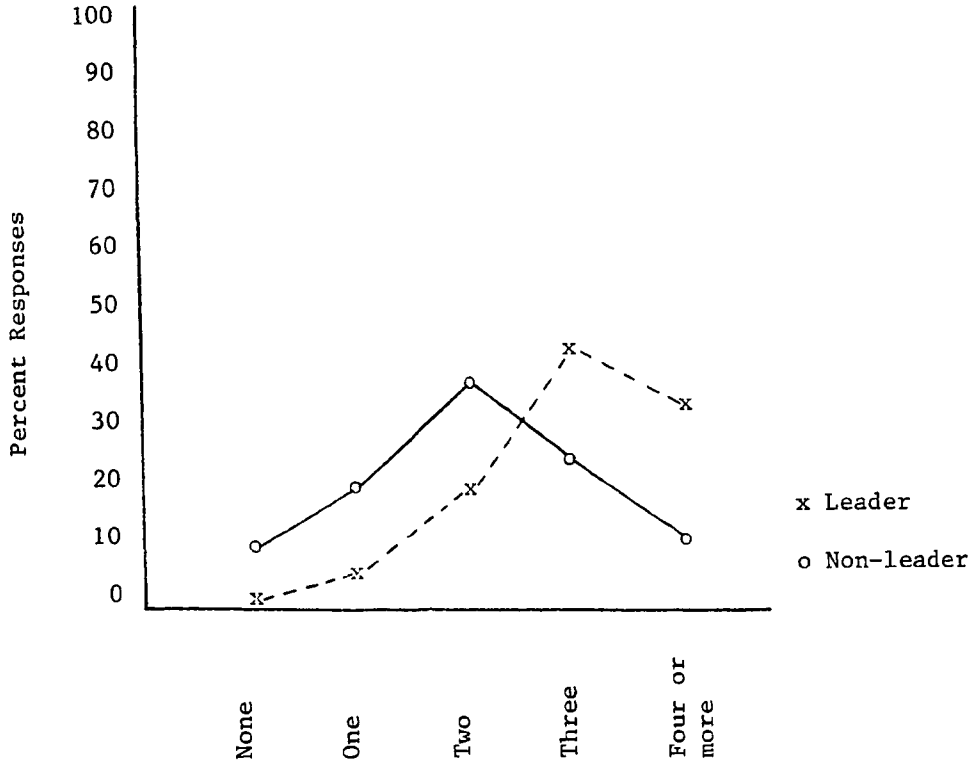

Figure 14. Membership in professional organizations

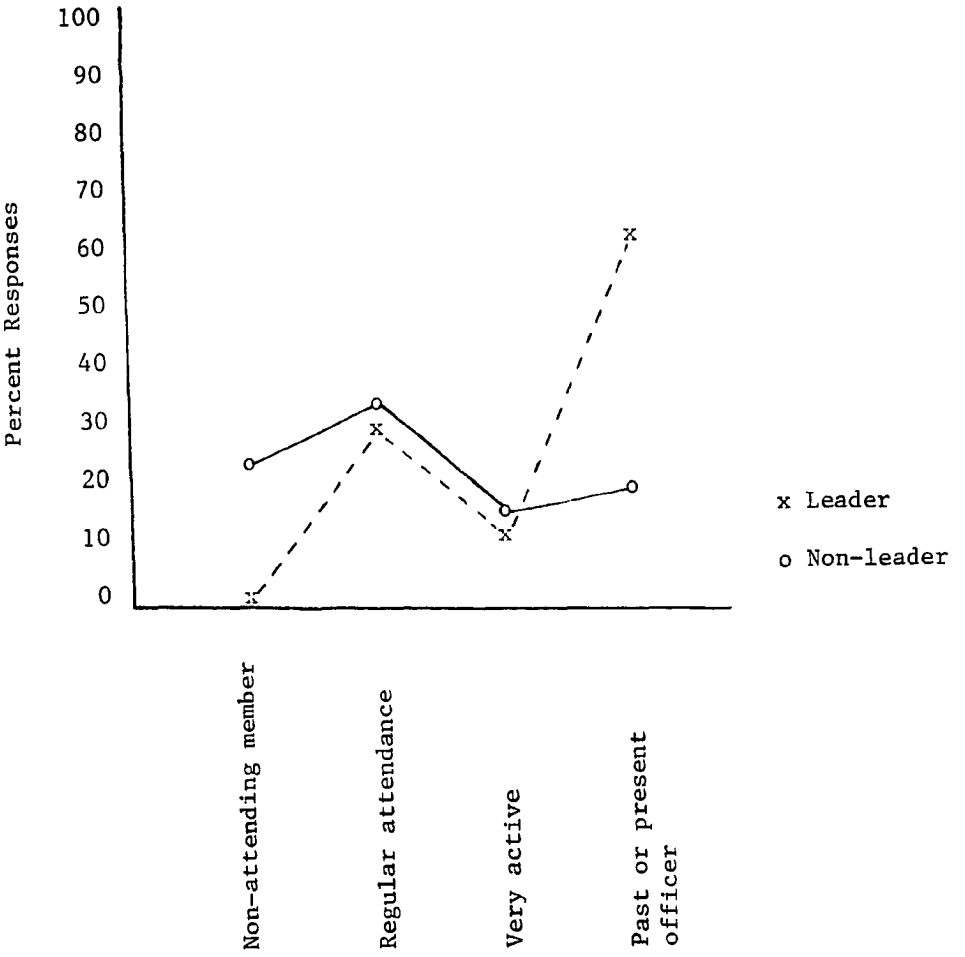

Figure 15. Participation on professional organizations

Leadership behavior can also be seen in response to an inquiry regarding the role the subject would like to serve on a committee (Question 22). Twenty-nine percent of teacher leaders preferred to chair the committee. None of the nonleaders chose to chair, preferring to be an observer or serve as a member (chi square = 7.20, df = 1, $p < .01$) (Figure 16). When asked to specify on which of three committees they would rather serve, 52 percent of teacher leaders specified that they would like to "conceive and write curriculum," while just 24 percent of nonleaders chose this option (Question 26). Forty-eight percent of nonleaders preferred not to serve on any committee, while only 24 percent of teacher leaders made this choice (Figure 17). Question 27 permits the subject to characterize his role in committee work. Thirty-eight percent of the leaders reported that they "speak openly, presenting (their own) point of view," in contrast to 19 percent of nonleaders. Only ten percent of leaders reported that they "listen and absorb many points of view," while 33 percent of nonleaders saw themselves participating in this way (Figure 18). When asked if they would be willing to serve on four committees which would make policy and share governance, 81 percent of both groups responded affirmatively. The first choice of nonleaders was a community-relations committee, while the first choice of leaders was an educational policy committee. The last choice of both groups was a peer-evaluation committee. Though data for these items were not statistically significant, differences in the responses of the two groups were evident.

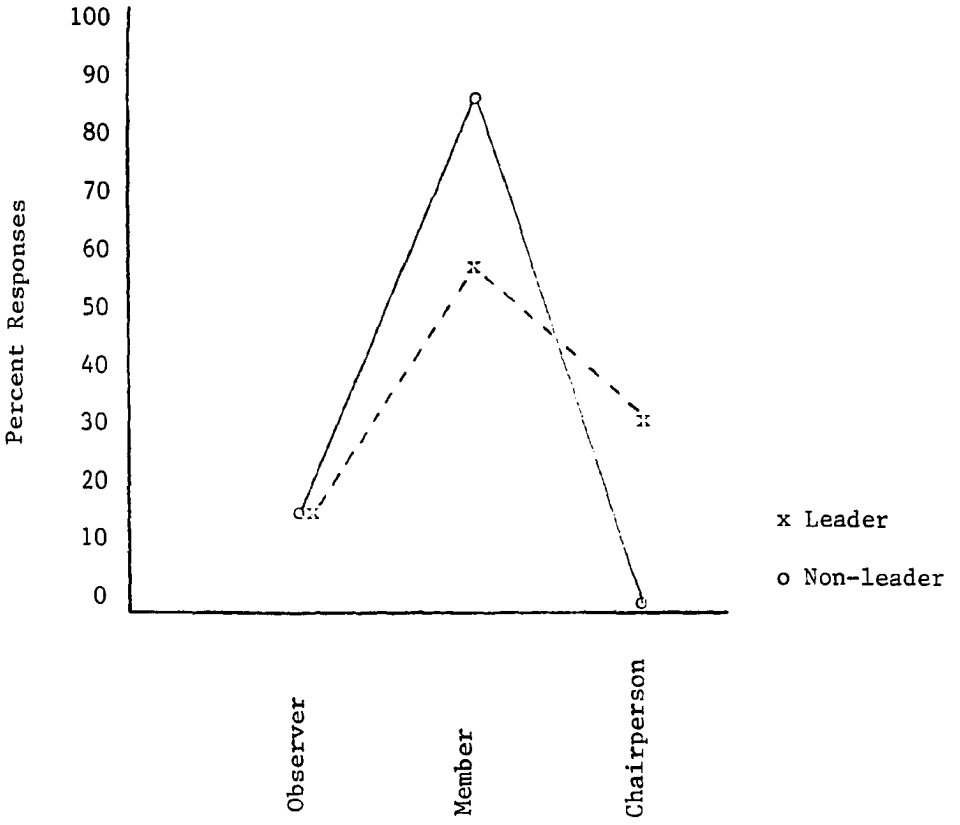

Figure 16. Committee participation preference

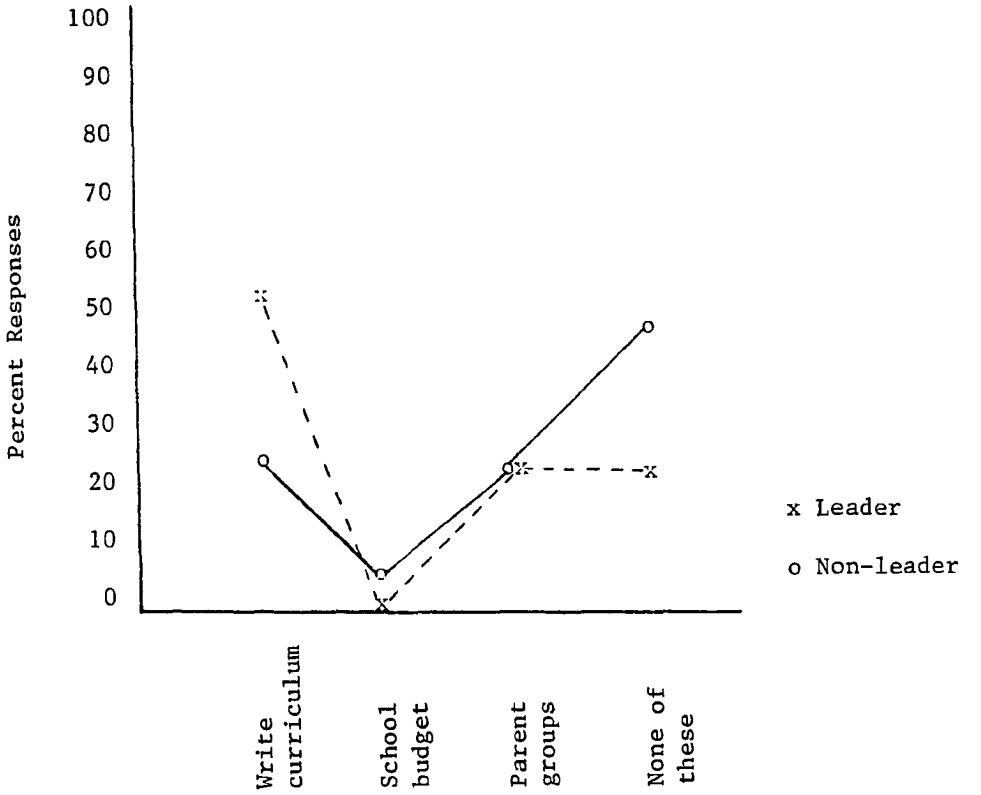

Figure 17. Committee preference

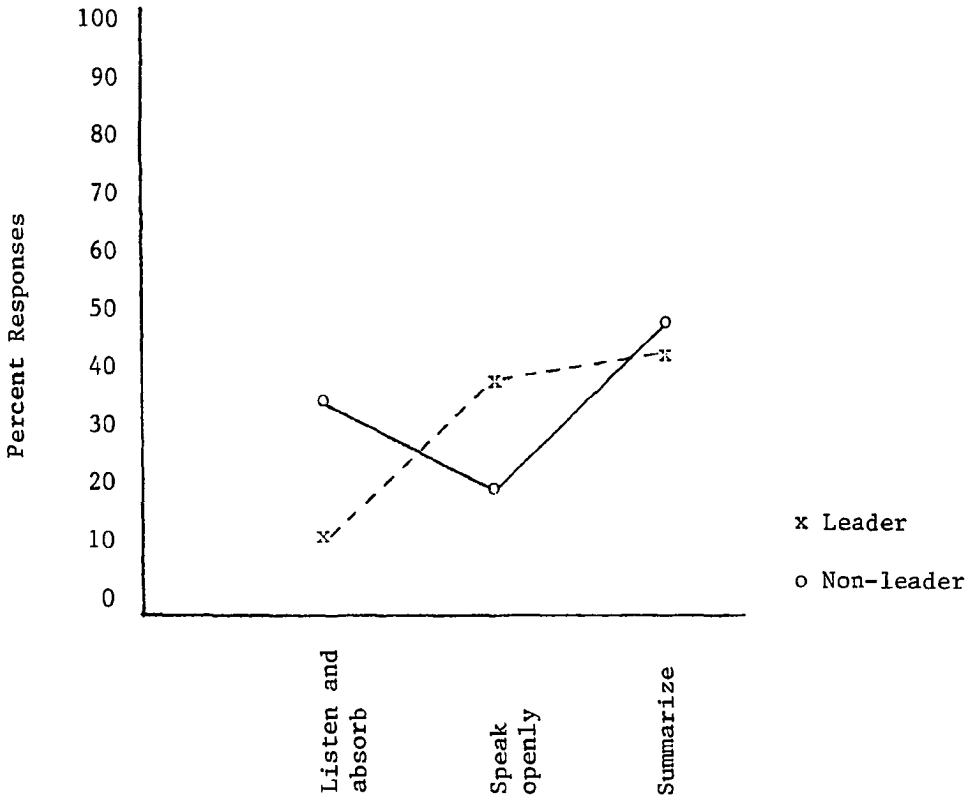

Figure 18. Committee participation

The first hypothesis was confirmed. Significant differences between characteristics of leaders and nonleaders were found in each of the following areas: (1) personal characteristics, (2) professional characteristics, (3) educational philosophy, and (4) activities outside the classroom.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis stated: Principals, in identifying teacher leaders, will be able to characterize the influence of a teacher as (1) educational leadership, (2) social leadership, and (3) political leadership.

Within the principal-researcher interview, the administrator was asked to characterize the teacher leader in terms of the type of leadership he was perceived to have with other adults. With definitional clarification, each principal was able to delineate the kind of leadership he felt characterized the teacher leader. Eleven teachers were identified as exerting educational leadership on other adults; five were viewed as having educational-social leadership; three were viewed as having educational-political leadership, and two as exerting all three types of leadership on adults in their settings (see Table 2).

To understand better the type of person a principal perceives as a teacher leader, some other questions were asked of the administrator. Inquiry was made as to whether the leadership was intentional or unintentional on the part of the teacher. Twenty-one percent of the teachers identified as leaders were perceived to be

Table 2

Leadership Profile of Subjects

Schools Schools	Teacher Leaders	Types of Leadership
Cabarrus County Schools		
A. T. Allen	2	1: Educational, Political 2: Educational, Political
Bethel	2	1: Educational, Social, Political 2: Educational
Harrisburg	3	1: Educational 2: Educational, Social
Mount Pleasant	3	1: Educational 2: Educational, Social 3: Educational, Social
Royal Oaks	2	1: Educational 2: Educational
W. R. Odell	2	1: Educational 2: Educational
Winecoff	2	1: Educational, Social, Political 2: Educational
Wolf Meadow	2	1: Educational, Social 2: Educational, Social
Concord City Schools		
Beverly Hills	1	1: Educational, Political
Coltrane Webb	2	1: Educational 2: Educational
R. B. Shaw	1	1: Educational

exerting intentional influence on other adults, while 79 percent were seen as unintentional leaders. Fifty-eight percent of those identified as teacher leaders were thought to be among the hardest workers in their schools. Perhaps most significantly, 88 percent were identified as one of the best teachers in their schools.

Hypothesis 2 was accepted. Principals, in identifying teacher leaders, were able to characterize the influence of the teacher as that of educational, social, or political leadership. In addition, the intentionality of their leadership was assessed, their effort was appraised, and their teaching effectiveness was evaluated.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis stated: The teacher leader will interact in significantly different ways than the nonleader with the following adults: (1) administrators and other teachers, (2) parents, (3) aides, (4) student teachers, and (5) volunteers.

Administrators and other teachers. Items relating to the interaction of teachers with administrators and other teachers include questions 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, and 27.

If a child is experiencing extreme need, the person to whom the teacher turns will probably be someone he respects, trusts, and perceives to be a source of help (Question 21). Nineteen percent of nonleaders would discuss it with a colleague, while only ten percent of teacher leaders would do so. Thirty-three percent of the leaders would confer with the principal, though only 24 percent of the nonleaders would. They would more often prefer to contact the parent

(43 percent) (Figure 19). Thirty-three percent of teacher leaders would consult with the parent initially. Though the option of doing all three was not stated on the questionnaire, 24 percent of teacher leaders and 14 percent of nonleaders stated this choice.

The role a teacher plays with peers in committee work provides opportunity for leadership (Question 22). As previously reported, 29 percent of teacher leaders stated a preference for chairing the committee, while none of the nonteachers made this choice (chi square = 7.20, df = 1, $p < .01$). In assessing personal style of interaction on committees, 33 percent of nonleaders and only ten percent of leaders saw themselves "listen(ing) and absorb(ing) many points of view" (Question 27). In contrast, 38 percent of teacher leaders and 19 percent of nonleaders preferred to speak openly, presenting their own points of view.

Patterns of teacher interaction are also important when a school policy conflicts with one's personal judgment (Question 23). While 19 percent of the nonleaders would remain silent, only five percent of the teacher leaders would. Twenty-nine percent of the nonleaders would discuss it with a colleague, but just 14 percent of the teacher leaders would choose that tack. Seventy-six percent of the teacher leaders and 48 percent of nonleaders would discuss their personal viewpoints with the principal instead (Figure 20).

The self-perceptions of teachers with regard to personal influence are explored by Question 24. Fourteen percent of leaders saw their mode of leadership as being through modeling behavior. None of the nonleaders did. Ten percent of nonleaders saw their means of

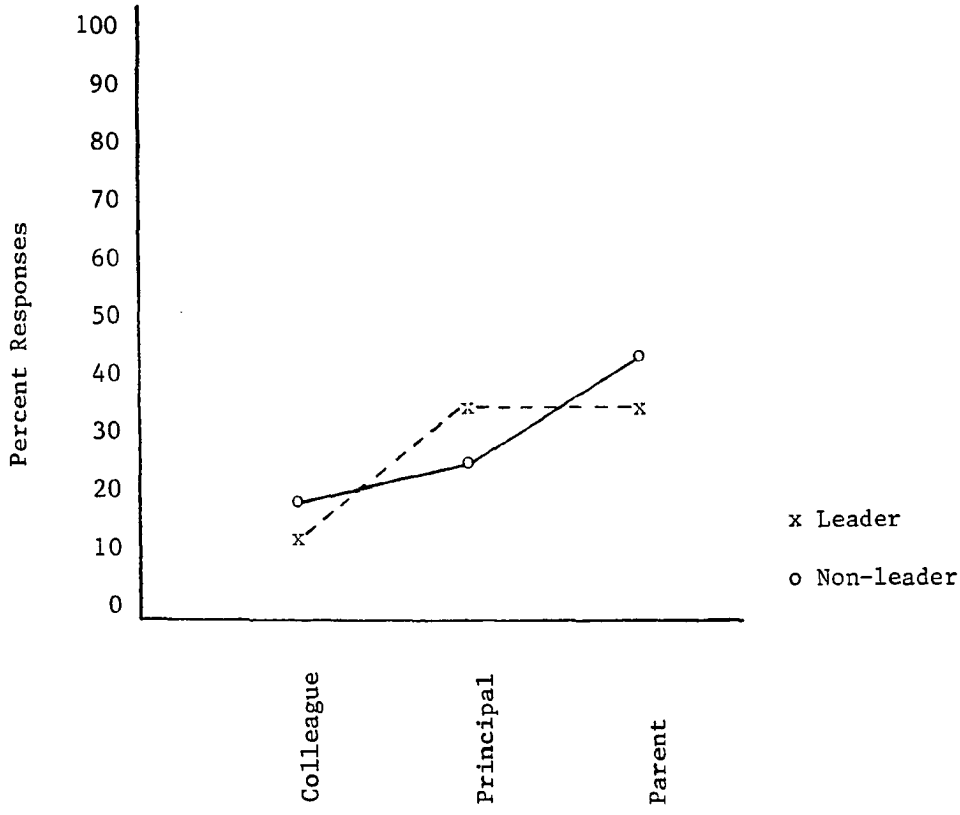

Figure 19. Consultation regarding child's extreme need

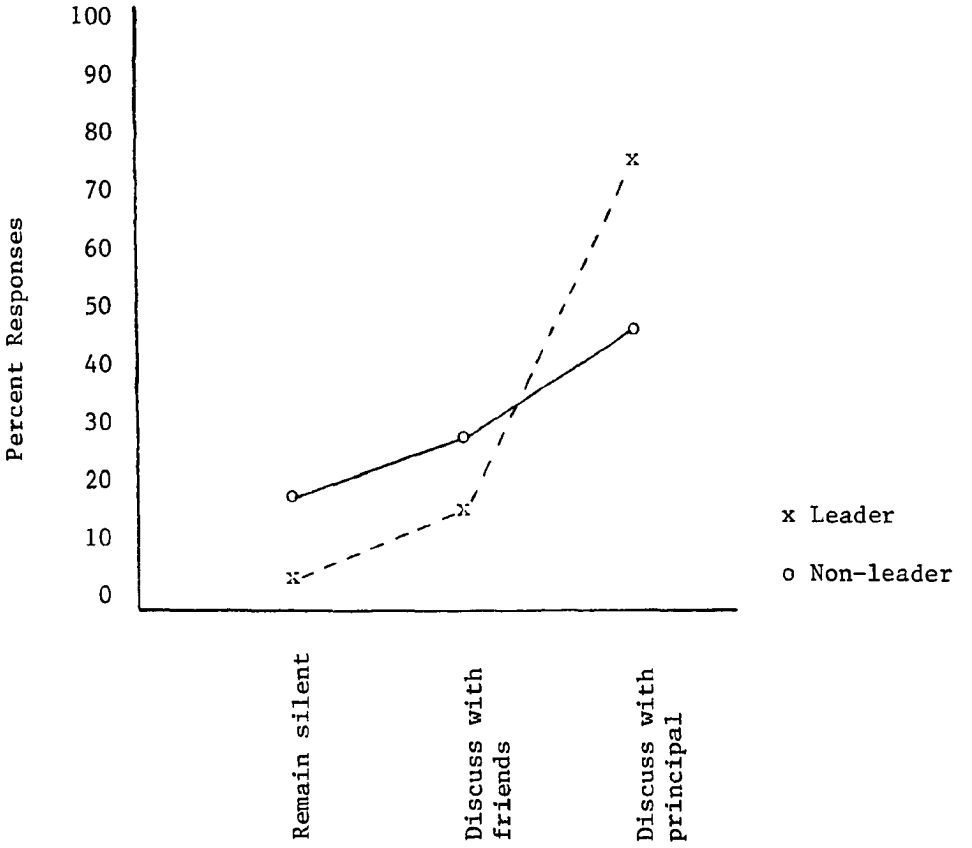

Figure 20. Behavior when policy conflicts with personal judgment

influence as through sharing materials. Forty-three percent of non-leaders and 14 percent of leaders thought their mode of influence was by discussing techniques and ideas. However, 72 percent of teacher leaders saw their means of influence as being their general attitude and commitment to children and the profession. Forty-eight percent of nonleaders made this choice (chi square = 5.37, df = 1, $p < .025$) (Figure 21).

The most statistically significant finding of the study is related to self-reporting of teachers with regard to the frequency other educators come to them for suggestions of information. Four-teen percent of leaders and 67 percent of nonleaders estimated that they act as a resource for peers occasionally (one to two times per week) (Question 25). However, 81 percent of teacher leaders and just 33 percent of nonleaders reported that they are frequently contacted by others (three to five times per week) (chi square = 11.26, df = 1, $p < .001$) (Figure 22). This finding also helps to validate the accuracy of leadership identification made by principals.

Parents. Questions pertaining to interaction of teachers and parents include numbers 29 through 34.

The one aspect of parent relationships which differentiated teacher leaders from nonleaders was the nature of perceived benefits of a parent-teacher conference (Question 33). The teacher leader was significantly more likely to find as a benefit the conference opportunity to gain insight into the child and his home environment ($t = 2.74$, $p < .02$). The nonleader's perceived conference benefit

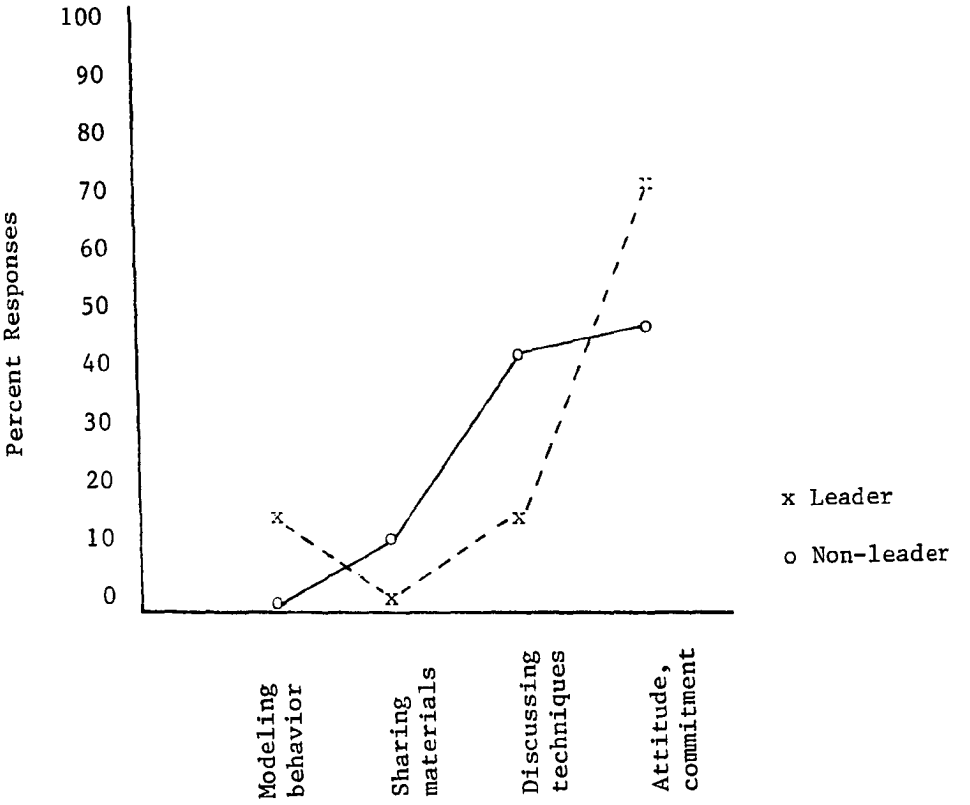

Figure 21. Mode of teacher influence on others

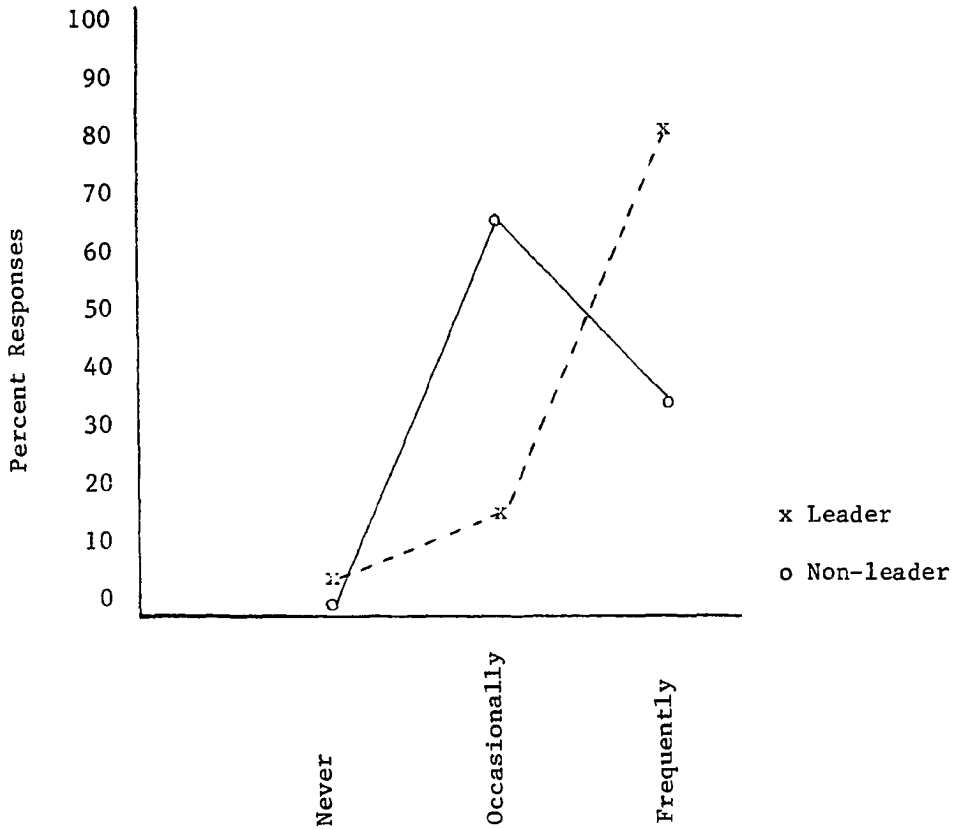

Figure 22. Teacher as consultant to other teachers

related more often to opportunity to inform the parent of the child's academic progress. Both groups chose as the least important of six stated conference objectives that of promoting positive community relations. In identifying the most used means of parent communication, nonleaders most frequently relied on personal note and duplicated letter (Question 32). While both groups chose the parent conference as the most used mode of communication, teacher leaders also relied on telephone and home visits more frequently than their counterparts. Question 30 revealed that 57 percent of teacher leaders and 43 percent of nonleaders hold 31 or more conferences a year (Figure 23). Most subjects saw their greatest impact on parents as offering insights into the child's strengths and problems, with 91 percent of leaders and 81 percent of nonleaders choosing this option (Question 31) (Figure 24). The impact they would like to have on parents (modal first choice of both groups), however, is to encourage a positive perspective toward the child (Question 34). A difference in perspective between the groups can be observed by their second choice for that item. While nonleaders would like to have an impact on parents by "generating concern for (a child's) behavior or academic problems," the teacher leaders would more often prefer the positive tack of providing insights into the child's strengths and weaknesses. There was no significant difference in the way teacher leaders and nonleaders viewed parent awareness and support of the school program (Question 29). They both saw parents as somewhat aware of the child's curricular program, concerned about the child's progress, supportive of the school, and supportive of teacher effort.

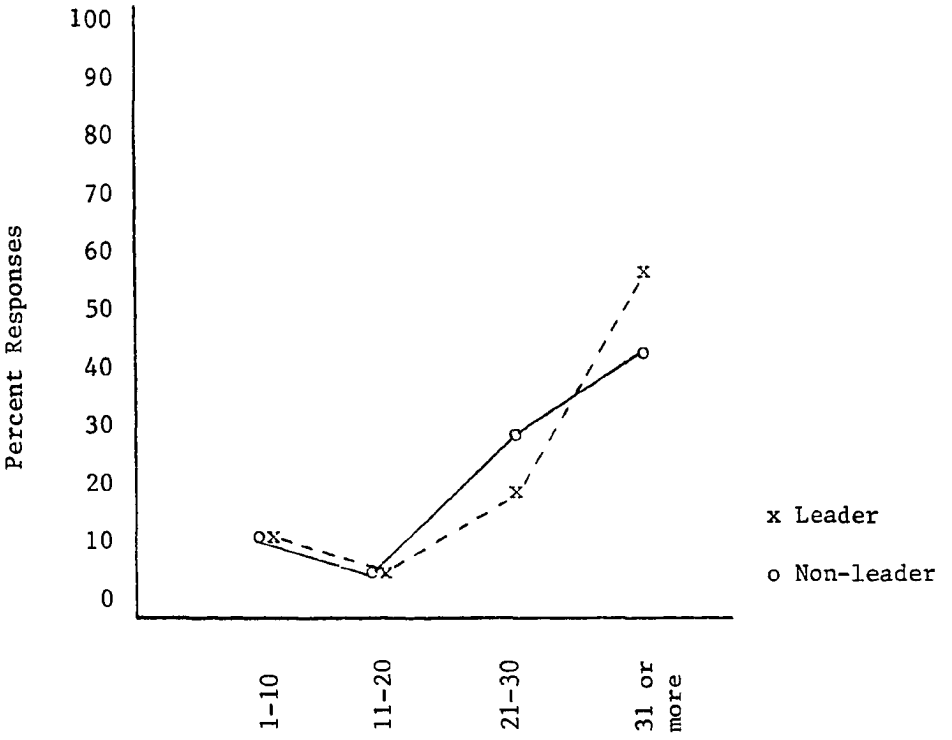

Figure 23. Conferences per year

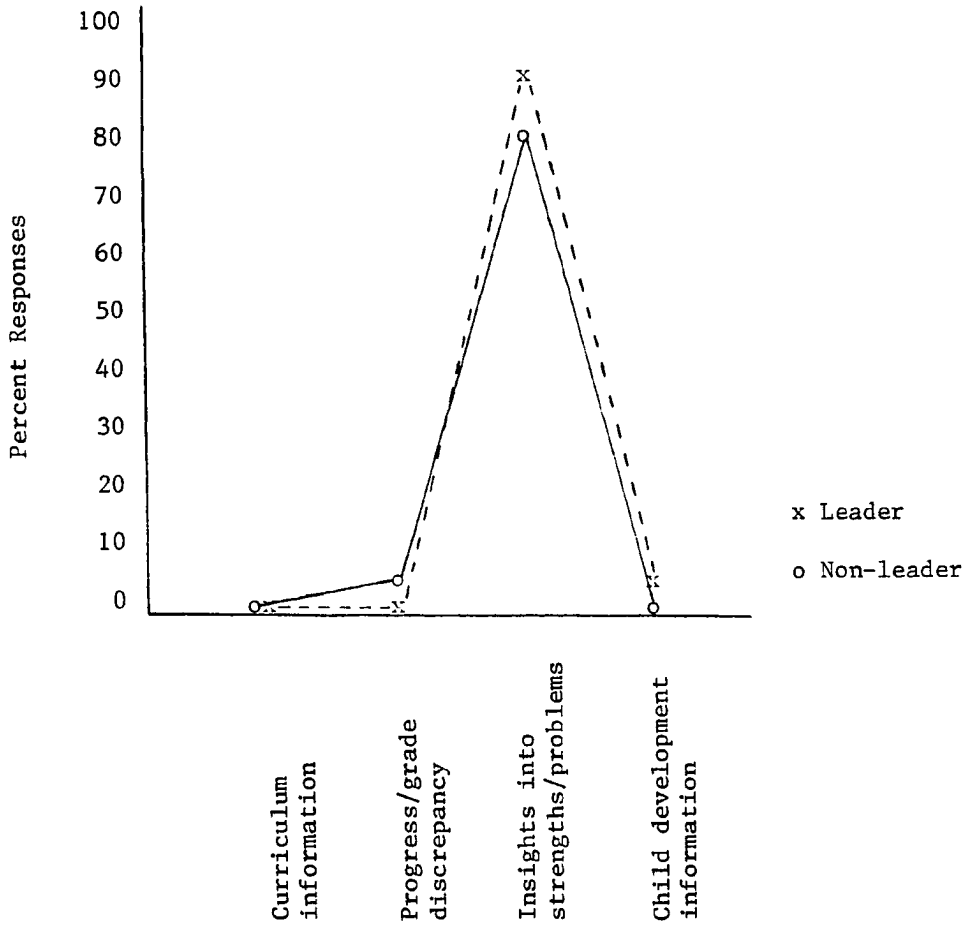

Figure 24. Teacher impact on parents

Aides. Questions which relate to teacher interaction with classroom aides include numbers 35 through 39. Data are based on 12 teachers in each group (57 percent) who had aides.

Though there were no statistically significant differences in responses between groups, there were some trends to report. The nonleader was more likely to see the significant communication pattern with the aide being duty-schedule related, while the teacher leader held a preference for accepting the aide as a respected co-worker (Question 37). Similarly, the teacher leader saw a greater value than did the nonleader in sharing with the aide suggestions for problem solving, while the nonleader was more likely to share effective instructional techniques (Question 38).

Leadership styles are revealed by responses to Question 35. Seventy-one percent of teacher leaders saw their aides taking initiative in problem solving, while only 46 percent of the nonleaders perceived their aides in this way. Nonleaders (39 percent) were more likely to see their aides offering suggestions regarding room management, curriculum, etc., than teacher leaders (21 percent) (Figure 25). Both groups reported that aides frequently shared ideas about problems or successes concerning individual children. They least often discussed effective methods of group control (Question 39). In contrast to other findings, Question 36 identified 85 percent of nonleaders and just 67 percent of leaders reporting student perceptions of aides as "another teacher," while 33 percent of leaders and 15 percent of nonleaders thought children viewed the aide as a helper.

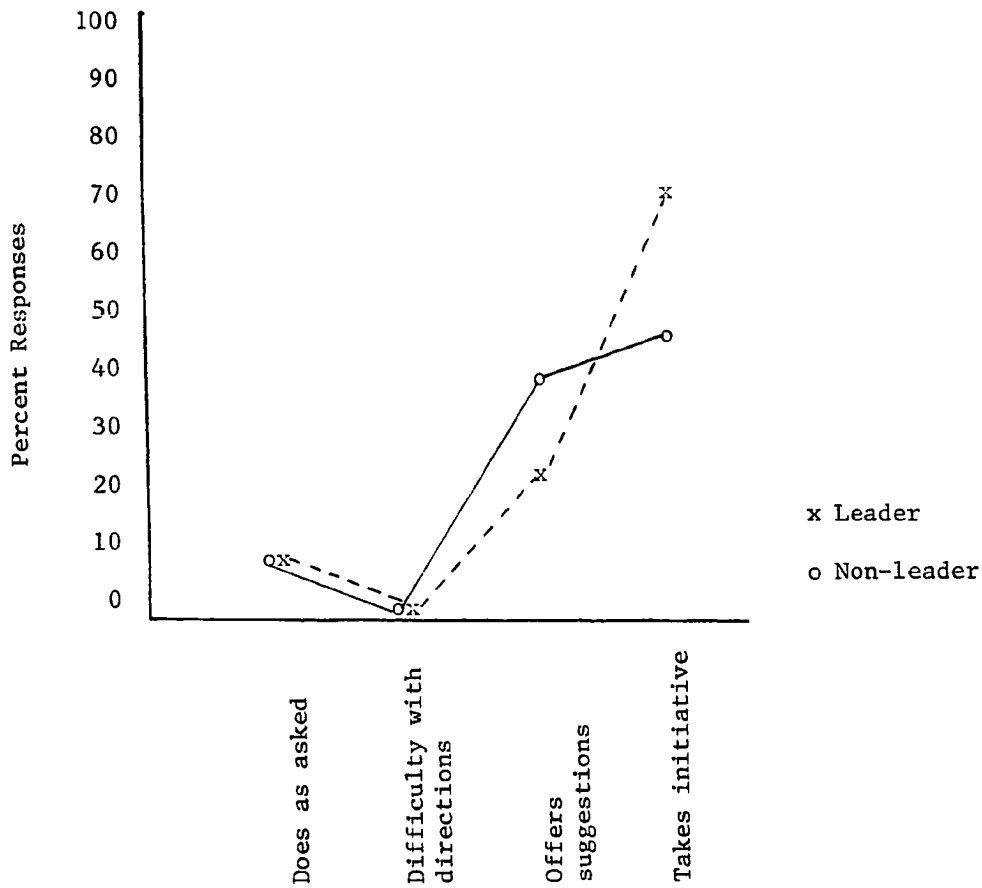

Figure 25. Characterization of aide

Student teachers. Items pertaining to the interaction of teachers with student teachers include Questions 40 through 47. Data are based on responses from nine nonleaders (43 percent) and 13 teacher leaders (62 percent) who had supervised student teachers in their classrooms.

In student teacher relationships, the nonleader was significantly more likely than the teacher leader to see an important influence as the sharing of effective teaching techniques ($t = 3.75$, $p < .01$). Teacher leaders were more likely to give prominence to helping the student teacher develop a personal sense of philosophy or purpose and to molding attitudes toward children. A second statistically significant finding was that the nonleaders were more likely to believe the beginning teacher's instructional style would be greatly influenced by knowledge of subject matter (Question 43) ($t = 2.36$, $p < .05$). Teacher leaders, however, saw enjoyment and insight into children greatly influencing the young educator's instructional style, as opposed to methods courses, classroom participation experiences, influence of the university supervisor, modeling behavior of the cooperating teacher, knowledge of subject matter, or knowledge of research findings in education.

In the modal response pattern of teacher leaders, 62 percent characterized student teachers as having "a wealth of undeveloped potential," while only 50 percent of nonleaders saw them this way. Similarly, 62 percent of teacher leaders chose as a least appropriate student-teacher description "is often ill prepared for classroom teaching." Fifty percent of nonleaders chose this option (Question 40).

Question 42 deals with the goals of student teaching. Modal analysis of response patterns reveals teacher leaders placed greatest importance on "respect for the dignity of the individual child." Second in importance was "willingness to invest oneself in one's goals." Nonleaders, however, saw as equally necessary "knowledge of learning styles" and "meeting of individual needs of students."

Seventy-seven percent of teacher leaders thought their students viewed the student teacher as "another teacher" rather than a college student. Sixty-seven percent of nonleaders held this view (Question 44).

In evaluating significant communication patterns of teachers with student teachers, the leaders felt the most important avenue of communication lies in "acceptance (of the young educator) as a respected co-worker," and the least significant to be discussion of "daily lesson plans." The modal response of nonleaders revealed that they saw "sharing effective teaching and classroom management techniques" as their most important communication, with "long-range planning" to be least important (Question 45).

Modal response patterns indicate that both leader and nonleader cooperating teachers often shared ideas with student teachers about "effective instructional techniques" and "successes and problems of individual children" (Question 46). Teacher leaders felt that their least important communication with the student teacher concerned "new materials." Nonleaders considered least important, however, the sharing of viewpoints regarding "the mission of the teacher and the school."

In evaluating the communication pattern initiated by student teachers, both leaders and nonleaders chose "successes or problems of individual children" as the most frequent type of interaction. Second in importance was deemed to be "observation of or insights into individual children" by both groups. However, teacher leaders also felt that significant communication initiated by the student teacher lies in "areas in which he desires personal or professional growth." These teachers saw the least frequent concern of student teachers to be use of "effective teaching techniques," while nonleaders chose "methods of group control."

Volunteers. Items which dealt specifically with the teacher-volunteer relationship were 48, 49, and 50. Since 24 percent of nonleaders never used the help of a volunteer, that group did not complete Questions 49 and 50.

No significant differences were found between the teacher leader and the nonleader's style and use of volunteers. While 24 percent of nonleaders did not use volunteer help, 52 percent of teacher leaders used them rarely, in contrast to 24 percent of nonleaders who reported this level of usage. Weekly volunteer involvement was reported by 29 percent of leaders and 24 percent of nonleaders (Question 48) (Figure 26).

Plans conveyed to the volunteer by the teacher were given through oral instruction by 81 percent of each group, as opposed to a written plan (Question 49). The type of preparation given the volunteer was measured by analysis of modal response. The most used approach was communication of "materials and activity plans"

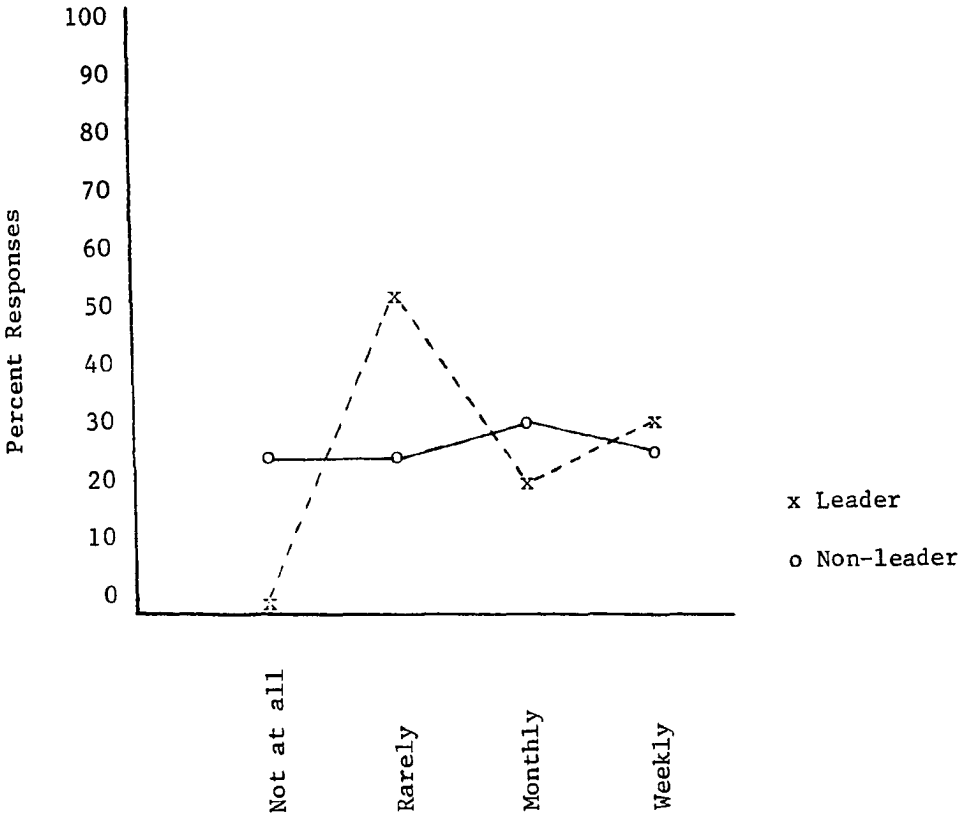

Figure 26. Volunteers in the classroom

preferred by 63 percent of teacher leaders and 44 percent of non-leaders. Second preference of both groups was the provision of "insights into the special needs of a child," chosen by 62 percent of teacher leaders and 38 percent of nonleaders. Communication of philosophy and sense of purpose was the last choice of leaders (63 percent) and nonleaders (56 percent) (Question 50).

Based on these findings, Hypothesis 3 is partially confirmed. Significant differences were found in the patterns of interaction of leaders and nonleaders with administrators and other teachers, parents, and student teachers. Though percentage and modal trends were apparent in interaction with aides and volunteers, the differences between teacher leaders and nonleaders were not statistically significant.

Discussion

Given the significant findings of this study (see Table 3), and the trends suggested by percentage and modal data, it can be concluded that the phenomenon of teacher leadership of other adults is a reality within the seven schools participating in this research project.

Time-Related Aspects of Teacher Leadership

Age and experience dimensions of teacher leadership established in this study concur with Brownlee's (1979) findings, with current research providing more specificity than earlier data. Brownlee

Table 3

Statistically Significant Results

Items	Chi-Square	t tests	df	p
Other teachers come to teacher leaders more frequently each week than they do to nonleaders.	11.26		1	.001
Teacher leaders prefer to chair a committee, while nonleaders prefer membership only.	7.20		1	.01
In student-teacher relationships, leaders see important influences to be fostering sense of purpose/philosophy and molding attitudes toward children, while nonleaders choose effective teaching techniques.		3.75		.01
The leader is more likely to see his professional role extending beyond the classroom to include leadership of adults.	7.428		1	.01
The teacher leader is more likely to find reward in children's academic growth than is the nonleader.		2.69		.02

Table 3 (Continued)

Items	Chi-Square	t tests	df	p
The leader is more likely to find as a benefit of a parent conference the opportunity to gain insight into the child and his home environment; the nonleader provides information regarding academic progress.		2.75		.02
The teacher leader is more likely to have led workshops for adults than the nonleader.	6.22		1	.025
Teacher leaders are more professionally active in organizations than nonleaders.	6.00		1	.025
Teacher leaders exert influence on peers through modeling behavior and by general attitude/commitment; nonleaders use teaching techniques and materials.	5.37		1	.025
While nonleaders tend to come from the 21-to-30 year age bracket, leaders tend to be older.	6.47		2	.05
Teacher leaders have more years of teaching experience than nonleaders; those with 11 to 15 years are more often leaders.	7.40		2	.05

Table 3 (Continued)

Items	Chi Square	t tests	df	p
Teacher leaders have more often held past or present office in a nonprofessional organization than nonleaders.	4.58		1	.05
Leaders see a student teacher's instructional style influenced by enjoyment and insight into children; nonleaders see them influenced most by knowledge of subject matter.		2.36		.05

found that teacher leaders have more years of teaching experience than other teachers in the school. The currently reported study established that educators with 11 to 15 years of experience were more likely to be identified as leaders than those with either more or less experience. Though there were more leaders than nonleaders with 16 or more years of experience, the difference between groups was not statistically significant. Though 14 percent of nonleaders had one to five years of experience, no leaders were in this grouping (chi square = 7.4, df = 2, $p < .05$).

Brownlee's study reported that teacher leaders were older than the mean age of other teachers in the school. This research confirms that finding. While none of the teacher leaders was in the 21-to-30 age range, 29 percent of nonleaders came in this age bracket (chi square = 6.47, df = 2, $p < .05$). Further, there are more teacher leaders than nonleaders in each of the higher age groupings. One implication of these findings is the possibility of idiosyncrasy credit playing a role in teacher leadership. Idiosyncrasy credit is "the sum of others' favorable impressions . . . that provides latitude for nonconformity and innovation, as in leadership" (Hollander, 1981, p. 497). It is a product of the new group member's conformity to group standards and expectancies. Given the absence of identified teacher leaders in the 21-to-30 age range, as well as among those having one to five years of teaching experience, it is likely that the conformity-acceptance factor is a partial explanation.

Both this study and Brownlee's study established that teacher leaders had more formal education. Eighty-one percent of teacher

leaders had a master's degree, and five percent a sixth-year degree as compared to 62 percent of nonleaders having earned a master's, in the study herein reported.

The number of years a teacher leader had been in the current school setting was also related to his identification. No leaders were identified as having been in a school one or two years. Teacher leadership came from the ranks of those who had been a part of the school setting three or more years.

Leadership Opportunities

The most statistically significant finding of the study was that teacher leaders reported being consulted by colleagues for suggestions or information much more frequently than nonleaders (chi square = 11.26, df = 1, $p < .001$). Leaders' perceptions of their role as teachers was more expansive than their counterparts, believing that it was not just confined to classroom effectiveness, but including educational leadership of other adults in the school (chi square = 7.428, df = 1, $p < .01$). While some teacher leaders (14 percent) felt they influenced the professional behavior of colleagues through modeling, many (75 percent) perceived their leadership influence to be through general attitude and commitment to children and their profession. The majority of nonleaders saw their influence being centered around sharing materials and discussion of techniques.

Many teachers identified as leaders by their principals were active in formal leadership roles. They belonged to more professional organizations (76 percent belonged to three or more as

compared to 34 percent of nonleaders) (chi square = 6.00, df = 1, $p < .025$). More important, the majority of leaders (62 percent) had held office in one or more organizations as compared with nonleaders (19 percent) (chi square = 4.58, df = 1, $p < .05$). Teacher leaders were more likely to have led workshops for other adults (chi square = 6.22, df = 1, $p < .025$) and served as supervisors for student teachers (62 percent leaders, 43 percent nonleaders). Ninety-one percent of teacher leaders had served as chairperson for a school or system-wide committee, as compared to 67 percent of nonleaders. When subjects were asked to reflect on the role they preferred to play on a committee, teacher leaders (38 percent) more often characterized themselves as being willing to speak openly, presenting their own points of view, as compared with nonleaders (19 percent). Nonleaders preferred to "listen and absorb many points of view" (33 percent) as compared to leaders (ten percent). If given a choice between chairing a school committee or simply holding membership on such a committee, nonleaders consistently preferred membership only, while teacher leaders frequently expressed the preference to act as chairperson (chi square = 7.20, df = 1, $p < .01$). Data indicate that teacher leaders have well established modes of interacting with peers, and may seek out leadership opportunity within their school settings.

Attitude and Personal Philosophy

Statistical analysis indicates that time-related factors (age, experience, educational level) and utilization of leadership

opportunity are congruent with teacher leadership. This study identifies a more subjective, intangible factor which is prominent in the leadership phenomenon--personal philosophy or attitude of the teacher. Scrutiny of research data will disclose educator outlook characteristic of the teacher leader.

The teacher leader was significantly more likely to see his professional role extending beyond the classroom, to include educational leadership of other adults (chi square = 7.428, df = 1, $p < .01$). Though the leader was aware of personal impact beyond the classroom, personal sense of reward came from children's academic growth ($t = 2.69$, $p < .02$). The impact that both leaders and nonleaders wished to have on parents was "to encourage a positive perspective toward the child." A contrast between groups was observed in their second modal choices, however. While nonleaders most often chose to "generate concern for behavior or academic problems," teacher leaders preferred to "offer insights into the child's strengths and weaknesses." The leader's intent is a far more positive approach than that of the nonleader. Similarly, the teacher leader perceived the greatest benefit of the parent-teacher conference to be "insight into the child's home environment." The nonleader chose to first give information regarding the child's academic progress, rather than to listen and observe ($t = 2.74$, $p < .02$). Another glimpse of these two groups can be gained when they identify sources of disappointment in teaching. Though both cited "lack of student motivation" as their greatest disappointment, their last choices were markedly different. Teacher leaders found least disappointing lack of administrative

support, while nonleaders were least frustrated with a lack of commitment within the profession.

Attitudes of the two groups toward student teachers were also contrasting. The teacher leader felt important influences on the young educator were to help to develop a personal sense of purpose or philosophy and to mold attitudes toward children. The nonleader saw important influence to be the sharing of effective teaching techniques ($t = 3.75$, $p < .01$). The teacher leader believed the young person's instructional style would be greatly influenced by enjoyment and insight into children, while the nonleader thought knowledge of subject matter was most critical to instructional success. Clearly, the teacher leader was exhibiting a sensitivity to human factors in the instructional setting of which the nonleader was unaware. A similar pattern is evident when the two groups selected goals of student teaching. Leaders tended to see the primary goals as (1) development of respect for the dignity of the individual child, and (2) a willingness to invest self in one's goals. The nonleader perceived principal goals to be (1) knowledge of learning styles, and (2) meeting individual needs. Significant communication between the nonleader and student teacher involves the sharing of effective teaching and management techniques. The teacher leader begins with the assumption that effective communication can occur only when the "other" is perceived as a respected co-worker. Leaders chose this premise for effective communication for items relating to both student teachers and classroom aides. This positive,

other-centered approach to both adults and children appears to disclose a significant factor in effective teacher leadership heretofore not identified by literature or research.

Relationship With Superior

While the teacher leader exhibits nonchalance toward relationships with administrators, there appears to be a firm bond of trust and respect between them. Teacher leaders modally cited their least important reward in the school setting to be "professional and personal support by administration." Yet, they uniformly reported that principals consult with them about school matters. If a child is experiencing extreme need, teacher leaders consult with the principal more often than do nonleaders. Risking personal conflict, teacher leaders reported that when a school policy conflicts with their own professional judgment, 76 percent of them will discuss it with the principal, as compared with 48 percent of nonleaders. These findings indicate that the relationship of teacher leaders with their principal is one of trust and mutual respect, a "given" within their professional environment.

Relationship With Colleagues

Significant indicators of peer relationships with teacher leaders are available within this study. The strongest evidence of peer respect and acceptance is the reported frequency with which teacher leaders are consulted on a weekly basis. Significant at the .001 level, leaders reported that other teachers come to them frequently (three to five times per week), while the majority of

nonleaders reported being consulted occasionally (one to two times per week). In addition, the study provides clues as to leadership style of these influential teachers. Rather than exhibiting an attitude of "hard-sell," teacher leaders most often characterize their mode of influence as one of "general attitude and commitment to children and the profession" (chi square = 5.37, df = 1, $p < .025$). In effect, their leadership of colleagues is an attitude, one which is "caught" rather than "taught."

Principals' Perceptions

Within the principal-researcher interview, characteristics of the identified teacher leaders were enumerated (see Table 4). They provide insight into the basis for the leader's selection. All teacher leaders were considered to be educational leaders, while some were characterized as also being social and/or political leaders. Seventy-nine percent were perceived to be unintentional leaders, while 21 percent were thought to exert an intentional kind of influence on other adults. All teacher leaders were positively perceived by principals. Though 58 percent were considered to be among the hardest working teachers in their schools, leadership ability is not perceived as a product of task-related effort. Eighty-eight percent of teacher leaders were reported to be among the best teachers on their faculties. This raises the question as to whether teacher leadership is synonymous with outstanding teaching. Dr. William Irvin, Superintendent of Concord City Schools, spoke to this point. He observed that the teacher who is identified as a leader of other adults is likely to be similarly effective with children.

Table 4

Principals' Descriptions of Teacher Leaders

Characteristics	Frequency*
Teaching Performance	
Concerned	3
Decicated	2
Well Organized	2
Cares About Children	1
Inspiring	1
Desires Success for Children	1
Provides for Individual Needs and Differences	1
Competent	1
Articulate	1
Willing to Try Different Things	1
Monitors Children's Progress Carefully	1
Has a Lot of Experience	1
Role	
Active in Teacher Leadership Roles	3
Example for Staff	2
Model for Discipline	1
Disciplinarian Without Punishing	1
Leadership for Staff	1
Respects but Questions Authority	1
Teacher of the Year Numerous Times	1
Assistant Principal as well as Teacher	1
Department Leader	1
Reading Coordinator	1
Resource to Other Teachers	1
Chairperson of the Curriculum Committee	1
Energy Level	
Hard Working	2
Efficient	2
Energetic	2
Overworks Herself	1
Willing to Work Extra Hard, Without Being Asked	1

Table 4 (Continued)

Characteristics	Frequency*
Sociability	
Good Rapport	4
Outgoing	2
Supportive of Others	2
Peer Respect	2
Cooperative	2
Excellent Public Relations	1
Pleasing Personality	1
Aggressive but not Offensive	1
Works Well with Students and Adults	1
Willing to Help Anyone in the School	1
Gets Along Well with Others	1
Not Overbearing	1
Positive toward Staff	1
Not Critical	1
Communicates Well with Others	1
Personality Traits	
Enthusiastic	2
Flexible	2
Understanding	2
Intelligent	1
Respected	1
Offers Suggestions for Change	1
Knowledgeable	1
Keeps Confidences	1
Patient	1
Quiet	1
Possesses Vision	1
Empathizing	1
Is a Good Listener	1
Self-Confident	1
Respectful of Others	1
Attitude of Acceptance	1

*Frequency represents the number of times the term has been used to describe teacher leaders.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The teacher role affords many opportunities for leadership of other adults. Though academic preparation does not prepare teachers for leadership, the educational hierarchy does not promote it, and administrators do little to invite it, the expertise of teachers holds positive potential for all those in the school setting. Research in the area of teacher leadership is nearly nonexistent. The purposes of this study were

1. To determine the nature of teacher leadership in the elementary school, and
2. To delineate characteristics which differentiate teacher leaders from teacher nonleaders.

Subjects for the study were elementary teachers from schools in Concord, Kannapolis, and rural Cabarrus County, North Carolina. Twenty-one teacher leaders were identified by principals within the 11 participating schools. An equal number of randomly selected teachers was chosen as a control group. A 50-item questionnaire was developed which would gather information regarding the teachers' personal characteristics, professional characteristics, philosophy, nonteaching activities, and relationships with other adults in the school setting. Analysis of data involved computation of chi square

and _t_ tests to determine statistical significance, as well as analysis of percentage and modal data. There was 100 percent questionnaire return rate.

For purposes of the study, the leader was defined as one who influences other group members, getting them to do what he thinks they should do.

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a significant difference between teachers selected as leaders and those randomly selected with regard to the following characteristics: (1) personal characteristics, (2) professional characteristics, (3) educational philosophy, and (4) activities outside the classroom. This hypothesis was confirmed. Statistically significant differences were found in each area, and they were as follows:

1. The leader was more likely to see his professional role extending beyond the classroom to include leadership of other adults than the nonleader.
2. Teacher leaders preferred to chair a committee, while nonleaders preferred membership only.
3. The teacher leader was more likely to find reward in children's academic growth than the nonleader.
4. The teacher leader was more likely to have led workshops for adults than the nonleader.
5. Teacher leaders were more professionally active in organizations than nonleaders.
6. While nonleaders tended to come from the 21-to-30 age bracket, leaders in the study were older.

7. Teacher leaders had more years of teaching experience than nonleaders; those with 11 to 15 years were more often leaders.

Hypothesis 2 asserted that principals, in identifying teacher leaders, would be able to characterize the teacher as an educational leader, social leader, or political leader. This hypothesis was also confirmed. All teachers were characterized as educational leaders. Eleven were attributed this single description, three were viewed as educational-political leaders, five as having educational-social leadership, and two as exerting a combination of all three types of leadership. In response to additional inquiry, principals characterized 21 percent of teacher leaders as intentional in influence, and 79 percent as unintentional. They perceived 58 percent of those identified as among their hardest working staff members, and 88 percent as among their best teachers.

Hypothesis 3 stated that the teacher leader would interact in significantly different ways than the nonleader with the following adults: administrators, other teachers, parents, volunteers, student teachers, and aides. This hypothesis was confirmed for all adult groups except volunteers and aides. Statistically significant findings include:

1. Other teachers come to teacher leaders more frequently for suggestions or information than they do to nonleaders.
2. In student-teacher relationships, leaders saw important influences to be fostering a sense of purpose or philosophy

and molding attitudes toward children, while nonleaders chose effective teaching techniques.

3. The leader is more likely to find as a benefit of a parent conference the opportunity to gain insight into the child and the home environment; the nonleader's main purpose is to provide information regarding academic progress.
4. Teacher leaders exert influence on peers through modeling behavior and by general attitude and commitment; nonleaders perceive teaching techniques and materials to be their means of influence.
5. Teacher leaders had more often held past or present office in a professional organization than nonleaders.
6. Leaders saw student teachers' instructional styles influenced by enjoyment and insight into children; nonleaders saw them influenced most by knowledge of subject matter.

It was concluded that the phenomenon of teacher leadership of other adults is a reality within the 11 schools participating in the study, and that teachers do differ significantly from their nonleader colleagues.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by a number of factors involving subjects and instrument. Subjects were drawn from rural Piedmont, North Carolina, and from two small towns in that area. Therefore, they were not representative of an urban population. The researcher experienced difficulty in gaining study participation of urban

school administration and thus was faced with the exclusion of that teacher population.

The second limitation involved a small sample size. Inaccessibility of urban schools for study purposes contributed to the difficulty of procurement of subjects. The study design was a contributing factor as well. It necessitated choosing only one to three teacher leaders from each school, because of the need to limit the selection of subjects to those with prominent leadership ability. Support from central office administrators and 11 principals was essential to gaining accessibility to the 42 subjects. Some school systems were unwilling to participate because of the additional paper work it would involve for teachers.

This study design required subjects to report about themselves in relation to their interactions with other adults, a third limitation. Without information from other teachers, parents, aides, student teachers, and volunteers concerning interaction with the teacher leader, it was difficult to ascertain to what extent self-reports were free from subjectivity.

A fourth limitation centered on identification procedure of teacher leaders. Though the Brownlee (1979) study established that there is a high correlation in teacher-principal perception of teacher leadership, it does not rule out the possibility of a discrepant choice. For purposes of this study, the school's principal was the single source of subject identification. Interestingly, there was no teacher identified who was not considered an educational leader.

The fifth and perhaps most significant limitation of the study focused on the unavailability of a standardized instrument for assessment of teacher leadership. A search of the literature identified just one similar study. That study utilized a researcher-constructed instrument which explored time-related factors of teacher leadership. The purposes of this study were more expansive, being directed toward teacher philosophy, interaction with adult target groups, and professional activity beyond the classroom. Therefore, the researcher designed a questionnaire unique to the purposes of the study. Replication of the research may involve refinement of that instrument.

Recommendations

If this study were to be replicated, the following recommendations should be considered:

1. Use a larger sample size, thereby increasing the probability of statistical significance and greater justification for generalization of results.
2. Include a metropolitan area in the sample, gaining information from urban as well as suburban and rural schools.
3. Include secondary schools in the sample or replicate study using only secondary schools to determine if there is a difference in perspective at this level.
4. Control for subjectivity of subject self-reporting by developing a questionnaire for each of the target groups interacting with the teacher leader and nonleader.

5. Scrutinize and refine the instrument. Questions for consideration include provision of directions on the study itself, definition of key terms, and greater specificity of some items.
6. Expand the base of subject identification by polling each staff member as well as the principal.

As is often the case with exploratory research, as many questions were raised as were answered. Avenues of further investigation suggested by this study include:

1. Investigation of the desirability and nature of incentives for encouragement of leadership skills for teachers not identified as teacher leaders.
2. Examination of the possibility that there may be distinct differences in personality characteristics of teacher leaders and teachers not so identified.
3. Study of the incidence of teacher leadership below age 30 and within the first ten years of teaching, using a larger population.
4. Examination of the relationship of teacher leadership and those teachers voluntarily leaving the classroom, utilizing an increased sample size.

Implications of the Study

There is great potential in teacher leadership--potential for administrators, other teachers, and all other adults with whom the teacher leader interacts. For the sake of the teacher and all those

whose lives he touches, there is the need to nurture and develop leadership skills. Possibilities suggested by research findings and the literature include the following:

1. Encourage development of a personal, educational philosophy.
2. Encourage membership in professional organizations, to provide a forum for clarification and development of ideas as well as the opportunity for leadership.
3. Provide opportunity for leadership to be developed and utilized within the school setting, as in (1) Individually Guided Education (IGE); (2) workshop presentations; (3) committee leadership involving curriculum development, policy making, and shared governance; (4) faculty representative on parent council, P.T.A. council, community boards; and (5) internship in an adjunct area of the educational spectrum.
4. Encourage graduate training.
5. Provide release time for major professional assignments, such as curriculum development.
6. Assign a student teacher or participant to outstanding educators.

Conclusions

Given the experience and expertise of the teacher leader, the educational hierarchy needs to avail itself of this largely untapped resource. Roles need to be expanded and new identities assumed, yet

within the context of the neighborhood school. To be prepared for this catapulting experience, the potential leader should be given opportunity to mature both in philosophic moorings and professional skills.

> The difference between the professionally adept and the less expert lies in the indispensable development of skills. The effective leader is thoroughly trained in the essentials of his job and acquires a self-assurance that inspires confidence. (Drake, 1977, p. 291)

Seymour Sarason, in The Creation of Settings and the Future Societies, advocated that settings ponder their purpose for existence, and within that purpose, find a prominent place for growth of those within the environment. Sarason asserted that a primary purpose in creating a setting should be to enable those within it "to further their development, regardless of the demands of the surrounding world" (1972, p. 85). In so doing, potential is created for the school setting to become a vital incubator of growth for all therein. Keef (1979) spoke for the unfulfilled educator when he pleaded:

> American Education could reach the level of self-actualization if only someone would listen to our ideas. Our ideas are important because they hold the dreams and promises of tomorrow. Won't somebody please listen and encourage us? (p. 412)

Development of teacher leadership would enable us to respond with a resounding affirmative!

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APPENDIX A

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

THE TEACHER AS A LEADER OF OTHER ADULTS

Purposes of the Study

The teacher role affords many opportunities for leadership of other adults. The purposes of this study are

1. To determine the nature of teacher leadership, and
2. To delineate characteristics which differentiate teacher leaders from nonleader teachers.

Hypotheses

Based on the assumption that principals will be able to identify one or more teacher leaders of other adults within his/her setting, it is hypothesized that

1. In comparing questionnaire responses by teacher leaders and a randomly selected equal number of teachers not so identified, differences between characteristics of the two groups will be revealed in

    1.1 Personal characteristics
    1.2 Professional characteristics
    1.3 Educational philosophy
    1.4 Activities outside the classroom.

2. Principals, in identifying teacher leaders, will be able to characterize the influence of a teacher as

    2.1 Educational leadership
    2.2 Social leadership
    2.3 Political leadership.

3. The teacher leader will interact in significantly different ways than the nonleader with the following adults

    3.1 Administrators
    3.2 Other teachers
    3.3 Parents
    3.4 Volunteers
    3.5 Student teachers
    3.6 Aides.

Field-based Methodology

Each participating principal will be asked to identify one to three teachers perceived to provide outstanding leadership in his/her school. Leadership is defined as

One who influences other group members; a person who gets others to do what he/she thinks they should do.

I will meet with each principal, answer questions regarding the study, and record a brief description of identified teacher leaders. An equal number of full-time teachers on the staff will be randomly selected. Questionnaires and a self-addressed, stamped envelope will be left with the principal. Results of the study will be directed to superintendents, principals, and teachers in late spring.

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE

Route 1, Box 1792
Davidson, N. C. 28036
January 4, 1982

Dear Colleague,

The attached questionnaire deals with the interactions of teachers with other adults. You have been selected to share your insights on this question, thereby providing data on a topic essentially absent in educational research. Results of this study will be analyzed and reported in my doctoral dissertation, directed by Dr. Dale Brubaker, Professor of Education, University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

You will notice two types of item format within this questionnaire:

1) Multiple choice, requiring one response, and

2) Rank ordering of choices, with 1 representing the most important and the highest number representing the least significant choice.

Your careful attention to these questions and kind help will be very much appreciated. All responses will remain anonymous. Please return the questionnaire to your principal within two days. In late spring study results will be sent to you through your principal's office. Thank you for your help!

Sincerely,

Ruth Ann Palmer

Form ___ GENERAL QUESTIONS

___ 1. Years of teaching experience:
A. 1-5 B. 6-10 C. 11-15 D. 16 or more

___ 2. Highest level of education:
A. Bachelor's Degree B. Master's Degree C. Sixth Year

___ 3. Grade level currently teaching:
A. K-3 B. 4-6 C. 7-9 D. 10-12

___ 4. Number of years in this school:
A. 1-2 B. 3-4 C. 7-8 D. 9 or more

___ 5. Sex:
A. Female B. Male

___ 6. Age range:
A. 21-30 B. 31-40 C. 41-50 D. 51-65

___ 7. Do you have an aide?
A. Yes B. No

___ 8. If you have supervised student teachers, indicate approximate number:
A. 1-3 B. 4-6 C.7-9 D. 10+ E. Not applicable

___ 9. Have you ever led a workshop for adults?
A. Yes B. No

___ 10. Have you served as chairperson of a school or system-wide committee?
A. Yes B. No

___ 11. Does your principal sometimes consult with you about school matters?
A. Yes B. No

___ 12. To how many professional organizations do you belong?
A. one B. two C. three D. four or more

___ 13. Would you describe yourself as:
A. a member but do not attend meetings
B. fairly regular attendance of meetings
C. very active in the goals of one or more organizations
D. past or present officer in one or more organizations

___ 14. I see the school's main purpose to be:
A. to teach the state adopted curriculum
B. to motivate learning, as measured by statewide testing
C. to replicate a miniature, democratic society in the classroom
D. to meet the multi-faceted needs of children

15. I see my main purpose to be (rank order 1-5):
___ to teach for mastery of grade level curriculum
___ to instill a moral sense, as well as academic training
___ to nurture and guide children toward maximum growth
___ to grow and develop in my profession
___ to teach democratic ideals

16. My motivation for teaching is (rank order 1-5):
___ salary
___ status
___ enjoyment of children
___ sense of purpose
___ advancement opportunity

17. Any disappointment I find in teaching is related to (rank order 1-7)
___ lack of student motivation
___ lack of parent support
___ low salary
___ lack of administrative support
___ lack of advancement opportunity
___ lack of opportunity for decision making and influence in the school
___ lack of commitment within the profession

18. The reward I have felt is mainly related to (rank order 1-6)
___ children's academic growth
___ challenge of creative teaching
___ opportunity for professional leadership of adults and children
___ children's overall development
___ professional relationships within the school setting
___ receipt of professional and personal support by administration

19. Within five years I see myself:
    A. teaching in the classroom
    B. working in a supervisory or administrative capacity
    C. at home as full-time homemaker or parent
    D. in another occupation

RELATIONSHIPS WITH ADMINISTRATION AND OTHER TEACHERS

___ 20. As a teacher, I see my professional role as:
    A. confined to classroom effectiveness
    B. including educational leadership of other adults in the school

___ 21. If a child is experiencing extreme need, I:
    A. discuss it with a colleague
    B. confer with the principal
    C. contact the parent

___ 22. If a committee is selected to deal with a school problem, I'd prefer to:
    A. be an observer
    B. serve on the committee
    C. chair the committee

___ 23. If a school policy conflicts with my professional judgment, I usually:
    A. remain silent
    B. discuss my viewpoint with friends on the staff
    C. discuss my viewpoint with the principal

___ 24. I influence the professional behavior of other teachers most by:
    A. modeling behavior
    B. sharing materials
    C. discussing ideals and techniques
    D. general attitude; commitment to children and the profession

___ 25. Other teachers come to me for information or suggestions:
    A. occasionally
    B. never
    C. frequently

___ 26. If given the opportunity, I would like to help:
A. conceive and write curriculum
B. prepare the school budget
C. work with parent groups
D. none of the above

___ 27. When serving on a committee, I:
A. listen and absorb many points of view
B. speak openly, presenting my point of view
C. summarize the discussion and add my own thoughts

28. I ___would be willing to serve on the following committees:
___ would not
(If you would, please rank order.)
___ a community relations committee
___ an educational policy committee
___ a staff selection committee
___ a peer evaluation committee

RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS

29. Parents are basically (check one in each group)
___ A. aware of the child's curricular program
___ B. unaware of the child's curricular program
***
___ A. concerned about the child's progress
___ B. unconcerned about the child's progress
***
___ A. supportive of the school
___ B. unsupportive of the school
***
___ A. supportive of teacher effort
___ B. unsupportive of teacher effort

___ 30. The average number of conferences I have per year:
A. 1-10
B. 11-20
C. 21-30
D. 31 or more

___ 31. The greatest impact I think I have on parents is:
A. to provide information regarding curriculum content
B. to present discrepancy between a child's progress and grade placement
C. to offer insights into the child's strengths and/or problems
D. to provide child development information (normal stages)

32. I communicate with parents by (rank order 1-5):
___ personal note
___ home visit
___ telephone
___ duplicated letter
___ parent conference

33. The benefits of a parent-teacher conference are (rank order 1-6):
___ to inform the parent of the child's academic progress
___ to inform the parent of the child's behavior problems
___ to offer suggestions for at home activities
___ to promote positive community relations
___ to gain insight into the child and his/her home environment
___ to gain parent's cooperation and understanding

34. The impact I would <u>like</u> to have on parents is (rank order 1-5):
___ to provide information regarding the child's progress
___ to generate concern for behavior and/or academic problems
___ to offer insights into the child's strengths/weaknesses
___ to encourage a positive perspective toward the child
___ to engender support for the school in the community

RELATIONSHIP WITH AIDE

Omit if you have not worked with an aide; proceed to next section.

___ 35. My aide:
A. does what is asked
B. has difficulty following directions
C. offers suggestions regarding room management, curriculum, etc.
D. takes initiative in problem solving

___ 36. The children view my aide as:
A. a helper
B. another teacher

37. Significant communication I have with my aide involves (rank order 1-4):
___ schedule of daily duties
___ personal philosophy regarding children, sense of purpose
___ acceptance of him/her as a respected co-worker
___ requests for needed materials, services

38. I often share ideas with my aide regarding (rank order 1-5):
___ effective instructional techniques
___ successes or problems of individual children
___ new materials
___ methods of group control
___ suggestions for problem solving

39. My aide shares ideas with me regarding (rank order 1-5):
___ problems or successes of individual children
___ observation of social interaction/insights into children
___ suggestions for problem solving
___ ideas for art projects
___ effective methods of group control

RELATIONSHIP WITH STUDENT TEACHERS

Omit if you have not served as a Cooperating Teacher; proceed to last section.

40. A student teacher (rank order 1-4):
___ has a wealth of undeveloped potential
___ is often ill-prepared for classroom teaching
___ needs much direction/supervision
___ is usually more help than hindrance

41. Important influences I have on a student teacher are (rank order 1-5):
___ sharing effective teaching techniques
___ fostering competent use of a variety of materials
___ molding attitudes toward children
___ helping him/her develop a personal sense of purpose/philosophy
___ fostering effective room and behavior management

42. Rank order the importance of these goals of student teaching (1-7):
___ knowledge of subject matter and teaching techniques
___ knowledge of learning styles and child development
___ respect for the dignity of the individual child
___ meeting individual needs of students
___ willingness to invest oneself in one's goals
___ capacity to be creative, fostering it in self and others
___ ability to take the initiative in problem solving

43. A beginning teacher's instructional style will be greatly influenced by:
___ methods courses
___ opportunity for cclassroom participation before student teaching
___ instruction of the university student teaching supervisor
___ modeling behavior of the cooperating teacher
___ knowledge of subject matter
___ enjoyment and insight into children
___ knowledge of research studies regarding effective teaching techniques

44. The children view my student teacher, basically, as (rank order 1-2):
___ a college student
___ another teacher

45. Significant communication I have had with my student teacher involves:
___ daily lesson plans
___ long range planning
___ personal philosophy regarding children, sense of purpose
___ acceptance as a respected co-worker
___ sharing effective teaching and classroom management techniques

46. I often share ideas with my student teacher regarding (rank order 1-6):
___ effective instructional techniques
___ successes or problems of individual children
___ new materials
___ techniques for group control
___ suggestions for problem solving
___ viewpoint regarding mission of the teacher and the school

47. My student teacher shares ideas with me regarding (rank order 1-6):
___ successes or problems of individual children
___ observation of or insights into individual children
___ areas in which he/she desires personal or professional growth
___ use of effective teaching techniques
___ unique ideas for unit implementation, art projects, etc.
___ methods of group control found to be effective

RELATIONSHIP WITH VOLUNTEERS

48. I use volunteer help in the classroom:
A. weekly B. monthly C. rarely D. not at all

49. Plans for the volunteer are primarily conveyed by:
A. oral instruction B. written plan

50. The preparation I usually give a volunteer includes (rank order 1-3):
___ materials and activity plans
___ insight into the special needs of a child
___ philosophy; sense of purpose